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THE AMERICAN HERITAGE

AS ALL followers of Li'l Abner's comic-strip adventures know, the Freedom Train is coming our way. It started from Philadelphia on September 17, the anniversary of the last session of the Federal Convention of 1787, with its exhibit of 126 historic documents and five flags. The documents range in time from a thirteenth-century manuscript of Magna Carta to the log of the U.S.S. "Missouri" for August, 1945. Early drafts of the Declaration of Independence, the Articles of Confederation, the Constitution of 1787, the Bill of Rights, the Emancipation Proclamation, and many original letters of great American leaders are among the contents of this amazing exhibit. The tour of the Freedom Train will include every state and will require a year for its completion. The project is sponsored by Attorney-General Tom C. Clark and is indorsed by President Truman. Additional information

about the Freedom Train may be obtained from the American Heritage Foundation, 17 East Forty-fifth Street, New York 17, New York.

There can be no doubt of the great inspirational value of the project. Perhaps it is evidence of our greater maturity as a people that we now send great documents rather than the Liberty Bell on tour. What other values the Freedom Train may have in the lives of children and young people depends on what the schools do this year and in the years to come. If it be true of American youth that, as a cynic once said of another group, "they will die for the Constitution, but they will not read it!"—in that case there is probably little more to hope for than a temporary stirring of the waters of emotion. Most American youth, however, will read the Constitution and other significant statements of the American heritage if the schools do their full duty. What is necessary is that the students shall have learned

really how to read a thoughtful piece of writing, that they understand why it is important for them to read it, and that the documents themselves be readily available in a form which facilitates such comprehension.

The extensive use of great documents and of other original materials is not new in the history classes of American high schools, but it is still sufficiently rare to provoke skepticism on the part of some teachers. In many situations, no doubt, such skepticism is justified, because the necessary conditions for such study are lacking. In other schools it is being done, with varying emphases and in diverse settings. In the *American Teacher* of January, 1946, Mrs. Frances Ferrell, of the John Marshall High School in Chicago, reported on her use for several years of such materials to promote critical thinking among her history students. In *Social Education* for April, 1946, the writer of these notes reported on the use of original documents for the study of the development of economic and political ideas and institutions basic in the American heritage.

Even if teachers and administrators are convinced of the value of one or more of these approaches to the use of such documents in high-school classrooms and if students are prepared to read them, still the materials must be supplied in good form and at a reasonable cost. Most of the available "source books" are simply not adapted to this use. They are intended to illustrate and fill out the generalizations

and the outlines of "essential facts" of which our textbooks usually consist. Certainly it is desirable that life and color should be added to history courses in this way, but the function of reproducing a substantial portion of the American intellectual heritage in the words of its exponents is not intended nor carried out by such books.

On the college level, where this approach has recently had a measure of popularity, there are a number of such collections. One of the most recent and ambitious works of this type is *The Shaping of the American Tradition*, edited by Louis M. Hacker, professor of history in Columbia University, with the assistance of Helène S. Zahler, and published by Columbia University Press. From such a work a high-school teacher of American history or literature can gain much in depth of understanding, and consequently he will be better able to judge what might be applicable to the work of his own classes. Other worth-while suggestions for such a course may be found in the article, "Important Political Documents in Civic Education" by Robert A. Walker, director of the Institution of Citizenship at Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science, which appeared in the April, 1947, issue of *Social Education*.

There are some works that are intended to supply materials of this sort to high-school students. One of the most recent is *Fighting for Freedom*, edited by Harold A. Hansen, John G. Herndon, and William B. Langsdorf and published by John C. Winston

Company. This book attempts to show:

The issues between democracy and totalitarianism are clear cut. . . . Here are presented the documents on the basis of which one may determine for himself to what extent the "democracies" are "confused" and to what extent they agree on fundamentals.

At least 90 per cent of the documents are taken from speeches and writings, mostly by United Nations leaders, which appeared between September, 1939, and June, 1945. A smaller percentage are taken from the expressions of leaders of the Axis powers. In the opinion of this writer, such an approach suffers from too great a preoccupation with the immediate past, with the result that much of the material now has the timeliness of last year's newspaper. Nevertheless, the policy of allowing exponents of conflicting views to set forth their own positions in their own words deserves commendation and imitation.

Another anthology which relies less on official speeches and includes more poetry, good narratives, and descriptive writing is *The Price of Liberty*, edited by Clara A. Molendyk and Benjamin C. Edwards, of Lafayette High School in Brooklyn, New York, and published by Harper and Brothers. Its selections are intended to show what modern war really is, the opportunities which men have had but failed to take advantage of in the past, some of the strong and weak phases of our democracy, "Freedom's

Tenets," and a vision of a world that could be.

One mistake which has been made repeatedly in recent years is to assume that responsibility for teaching the American heritage belongs exclusively to courses labeled "American history." Actually this responsibility and privilege belongs wherever American art, literature, and music are studied, wherever the contemporary functioning of American institutions is thoughtfully examined—although it is, perhaps, the teachers of our national history who should take the lead in seeking a more meaningful integration of the students' total experiences in this area.

In any case, no one who now discusses the teaching of American history in our schools and colleges has any right to be ignorant of the most significant facts on the subject. In 1944 appeared the Report of the Committee on American History in Schools and Colleges of the American Historical Association, the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, and the National Council for the Social Studies, under the direction of Edgar B. Wesley (*American History in Schools and Colleges*—Macmillan Company)—the so-called "Wesley Report." Recently we have had an even more detailed and, from the classroom teacher's point of view, more "practical" work in the same general field. *The Study and Teaching of American History*, the Seventeenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, edited by Richard E. Thursfield,

associate professor of education in Johns Hopkins University, is the work of thirty authors. Teachers of history and of related studies on all educational levels will find in this publication something of interest and value, though the work of the secondary school is given major emphasis.

One of the most refreshing parts of this yearbook is the fundamental attack on the problem of how the proper study and teaching of history, not merely United States history, may contribute to the development of the good citizen. These unique and indispensable contributions may be summarized as follows: (1) "an understanding of the inevitability of change," (2) an understanding "that change and progress are not necessarily synonymous," (3) an understanding that "men in every age have been confronted with the same fundamental problems which we face today," and (4) the historical method. It is well to stress these basic values in the study of history; for they are frequently overlooked, taken for granted, and otherwise neglected. The objectives belonging more exclusively to United States history are more often emphasized in actual teaching. The yearbook does a signal service in stressing the place of our national history in an education which has as its ultimate goal the development of the "good world citizen" whose values "are, for the most part, the identical values which we have embodied in 'the American dream.'"

For the ordinary teacher, one of the

most useful parts of the yearbook is the section which sets forth newer interpretations and emphases in the major aspects of American history. The footnotes of this part constitute a valuable, if lengthy, reading list for mature students of the subject. Other sections of the yearbook stress the problems of vertical and horizontal correlation, methods and materials of instruction, evaluation, and the preparation of teachers. The inclusion of a final summarizing chapter by Howard R. Anderson, of the United States Office of Education, will be helpful to those who do not have time to read the entire volume.

Throughout the yearbook it is assumed that other fields of history, as usually interpreted in school curriculums, have their contributions to make to our students' understanding of the American heritage and that part of our problem is to bring about more meaningful relationships among related studies. Considerable emphasis is given to the development of habits of critical thinking through the critical study of some of the myths and legends incrusting upon our history and through a similar treatment of original or primary sources.

That there are a fair number of mature Americans who will read serious historical interpretations was brought home to the writer this summer when he had to wait some weeks for his copy of D. C. Somervell's abridgment of Volumes I-VI of Arnold J. Toynbee's *A Study of History*, which was a midsummer special order

of the Book-of-the-Month Club and which for several months has been a "best seller." To be sure, Toynbee's work, original or abridged, is not "history," as that ambiguous word is often used, but is rather "a single continuous argument as to the nature and pattern of the historical experience of the human race since the first appearance of the species of societies called civilizations." Much of what passes for history in high schools, however, is and must be of a similar order—interpretations "spiced" with a few facts and so written as to appear clear to immature minds. Well-educated persons will often find the "going" difficult but ultimately rewarding in its effects on their thinking. Perhaps history's best service is to help bewildered men in a "time of trouble" to see their place—or at least to be assured that they have a place—in a dramatic development which has meaning. In that respect, Mr. Toynbee's work may be compared with Augustine's *City of God*.

Americans find their place in history within the American tradition. In his article, "Who Is Loyal to America?" in *Harper's Magazine* for September, the distinguished American historian, Henry Steele Commager, examines this tradition and offers a liberal's definition of Americanism:

It is easier to say what loyalty is not than to say what it is. It is not conformity. It is not passive acquiescence in the *status quo*. It is not preference for everything American over everything foreign. It is not an ostrich-like ignorance of other countries and other institutions. It is not the indulgence in cere-

mony—a flag salute, an oath of allegiance, a fervid verbal declaration. It is not a particular creed, a particular version of history, a particular body of economic practices, a particular philosophy.

It is a tradition, an ideal, and a principle. It is a willingness to subordinate every private advantage for the larger good. It is an appreciation of the rich and diverse contributions that can come from the most varied sources. It is allegiance to the traditions that have guided our greatest statesmen and inspired our most eloquent poets—the traditions of freedom, equality, democracy, tolerance, the tradition of the higher law, of experimentation, co-operation, and pluralism. It is a realization that America was born of revolt, flourished on dissent, became great through experimentation.

Reprints of the entire article are available at \$0.15 each, \$10.00 per hundred, from *Harper's Magazine*, Department G, New York 16, New York.

ON THE INTERNATIONAL FRONT

ALTHOUGH the "activist" is inclined to brush aside as of no immediate importance (and so of no *real* importance) such matters as theories of history, James Marshall, member of the New York school board, points out their relevance to the very pressing current problem of building understanding between peoples with conflicting ideological viewpoints. Under the provocative title, "Freud and Marx at UNESCO," in the Summer, 1947, number of the *American Scholar*, Mr. Marshall quotes the comments of a Yugoslav delegate, M. Vladislav Ribnikar, to the Paris (1947) meeting of UNESCO

to show the incompleteness, from the Marxian standpoint, of UNESCO's theory of history. M. Ribnikar objected to what he considered the too exclusively psychological interpretation of the causes of war and, consequently, of the ways of preventing it, and, as examples, he cited the following phrases:

that since wars begin in the minds of men, it is in the minds of men that the defenses of peace must be constructed;

that ignorance of each other's ways and lives has been a common cause, throughout the history of mankind, of that suspicion and mistrust between the peoples of the world through which their differences have all too often broken into war.

Of course one does not have to be a Marxist to object to neglect of more materialistic causes of war, even while granting that such causes must be filtered through men's minds.

Marshall suggests that UNESCO cannot itself bring understanding; that "it can only be a place of exchange for those who have goods of the mind and spirit to give to one another and the willingness to make the exchange." He concludes that "nothing can more finally close frontiers than to range 'Marx' against 'Freud,' to take a doctrinaire position which excludes as irrelevant either the psychological or economic streams of life."

In UNESCO, educators find an agency which relates their professional interests and abilities to the supreme problem of our time—the establishment of a just and lasting peace. The Second General Conference of

UNESCO, which meets in Mexico City this month, will probably use as the test for all projects proposed for inclusion in its program the question: Does this project contribute as directly and exclusively as possible to peace and security? Of course the ultimate value of UNESCO, as of other specialized international agencies, depends in large part on what happens in the greater arena of international relations within and outside the United Nations.

U.S. Commission for UNESCO Within the past year UNESCO has set up a working program and has made progress in staff recruitment and organization. Of the member-nations, however, only six, including the United States, had, by July 1, set up national commissions representing leading scientific, educational, and cultural organizations; most member-states still handle UNESCO affairs through governmental departments. The advantages of getting down to the grass roots of public opinion through the activities of such a national commission were well brought out by Milton S. Eisenhower, president of Kansas State College of Agriculture and Applied Science and chairman of the United States National Commission, in his address to that body at its Chicago meeting on September 11-13, 1947. For Mr. Eisenhower one of the first activities for UNESCO is to "develop projects which require the assignment of specific subjects for study

and discussion by local councils and the preparation or assignment of books, pamphlets, and documentary films to provide a solid basis for these studies and discussions." Another task is to "break down the barriers which impede the flow of truth and honest opinion among the people of the world."

On the purposes of UNESCO, one of the clearest statements was made in an address to the United States National Commission by Richard P. McKeon, former dean of the Humanities Division of the University of Chicago, and at present United States Counselor on UNESCO Affairs at UNESCO Headquarters in Paris:

In the first place it is clear that the program of UNESCO should not be restricted to scholars, scientists, and experts, either in the sense that they alone will participate in the execution of its program or in the sense that the purpose of the program is to facilitate their work. The purpose of UNESCO is not to improve the resources or the instruments of education, science, or culture as such, but to use these resources and instruments in the interests of peace. However technical the basic ideas in which it originates or on which it depends, each project must affect the common man and should involve his active participation. In the second place, the dissemination of knowledge should be directed not merely at the reduction of ignorance in any field whatsoever, but should have a recognizable bearing on the use of ideas, attitudes, and communications in the ideological warfare which is now the greatest threat to the peace of the world. In the third place, despite the importance of international understanding, understanding is not in itself a panacea and the increase of understanding will not necessarily bring peace, but education, science, and culture must also be

used to remove real threats of war, where mere understanding might accelerate conflict, and to create new relationships more likely to be conducive to peace.

At the Chicago meeting the United States National Commission discussed the program proposed for 1948 and made its own recommendations to the United States delegation at Mexico City. It approved the principle of using the formula of "peace and security" as the test of all projects even though "by such a test many meritorious activities and projects . . . must be excluded from the program or postponed." The Commission approved most of the program proposed by the Executive Board of UNESCO, but it called for a restoration of high priority to the projected study of world channels of communication and to the possibility of setting up a world radio network. Similarly the Commission called for increased emphasis on UNESCO's responsibility to report "instances of textbooks inimical to peace among nations" and the extension of the analysis to the textbooks of nonmember states. (The U.S.S.R. is not a member of UNESCO.) Impressed by the success of the Teachers' Seminar on Education for International Understanding directed at Sèvres, France, last summer by Howard E. Wilson, associate director of the Division of Intercourse and Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, the Commission recommended the organization in 1948 of four such seminars in different regions of the world.

New international organization Another important item on the international front of education was the election of William F. Russell, dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, as president of the World Organization of the Teaching Profession at the First Delegate Assembly of the W.O.T.P. in Glasgow, Scotland, last August. Headquarters for the organization will be located in the National Education Association building at Washington, with a branch office in Edinburgh, Scotland.

Materials on United Nations Teachers of courses or units dealing with the United Nations should place their requests for free materials with their city superintendent of schools, or other parallel officers, who may receive the materials from the United Nations Department of Public Information at Lake Success, New York. Among the new publications is a *Guide for Lecturers and Teachers* on the organization and work of the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the Secretariat, and other important agencies which are in any way a part of, or closely related to, the United Nations. This basic guide may be supplemented by other publications, such as the *Chronology of the United Nations*, *Questions and Answers about the United Nations*, *The Charter of the United Nations and the Covenant of the League of Nations*, research papers, reprints of timely ar-

ticles, and leaflets about specialized agencies.

Most of the same topics are treated in a pamphlet, *Economic and Social Foundations for Peace*, which reports the work of a seminar at Mount Holyoke College directed by Professor Everett D. Hawkins. Single copies of this booklet may be obtained for \$0.35 and bulk orders of ten or more copies for \$0.25 each from the Department of Economics and Sociology of Mount Holyoke College, South Hadley, Massachusetts.

INTERGROUP EDUCATION IN AMERICA

IN PROMOTING interchange between cultures, UNESCO takes, as its touchstone, "unity in diversity," seeking so to use the channels of communication that one culture may be interpreted to other cultures. It is equally important that "men may learn first those common elements in other cultures that can serve as the basis for common thought and action" and that "they may learn respect for other divergent elements." This avoidance of "cultural imperialism" has been a significant element in the efforts which progressive educators have made to bring about better mutual understanding and appreciation among the several subgroups of American society. This program affords a considerable contrast to the spirit of assimilating minorities into the standards of an older American majority—a policy which prevailed in so much of the Americanization work after World

War I. To be sure, there must be common ground, or there is no real community; but the determination of those basic values is properly the work of all, the monopoly of no one group.

Improving inter-American understanding It is with the realization of this principle in mind that the United States Office of Education co-

operated with a number of public-school systems, teacher-preparing institutions, and state and county education departments in a project designed to improve "inter-American understanding" within the United States wherever Spanish-speaking children are in school. A description of these projects and a statement of conclusions growing out of them is found in *Inter-American Understanding and the Preparation of Teachers* (Bulletin 15, 1946) by Effie G. Bathurst, supervisor of the Inter-American Teacher-Education Programs of the Office. In many cases the changes needed most to meet the needs of Spanish-speaking children are precisely those which are needed really to vitalize the work for English-speaking children: a more modern program, which includes sympathetic understanding and better instructional methods on the part of teachers, and more and better materials with which to work. Among the more special findings of the study was the need of over-age Spanish-speaking children for materials which have a simple vocabulary and sentence structure but which are relatively mature in ideas.

Teachers who wish to promote inter-American understanding, in the usual sense of leading English-speaking children and youth to learn about our Latin neighbors to the south, will find a useful bibliography of visual aids in the September, 1947, *Bulletin of the Pan American Union*.

The [loan] of paintings, woodcuts, prints, photographs, pamphlets, Kodachrome slides, and samples of handicrafts can be had for the asking [from the Pan American Union's Division of Intellectual Co-operation]. There is no charge for the use of the material, but the borrower pays the shipping expenses—return postage on parcel post packages weighing under four pounds, and charges both ways in the case of express shipments and packages weighing over four pounds. . . .

For Kodachrome slides a charge of two dollars will be made for each slide that is either lost or damaged beyond further use.

Travel for social education In an interesting pamphlet, *Social Travel: A Technique in Intercultural Education*, Edward

G. Olsen, director of school and community relations, Washington State Office of Public Relations, has performed a distinct service for progressive educators. Here are summarized the reports of some of the most ambitious and productive school excursions directed toward a broadening of students' experience and sympathetic understanding. It is a record and an evaluation of an important method of using "educational processes to influence people so that they will behave democratically in intercultural stimulations." The last two chapters summarize the scanty objective evidence

on the educational value of this technique and state the conditions which contribute to its successful use.

The work may be purchased for \$0.35 from Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, New York City.

Project in race-relation research A new and ambitious five-year program of education, training, and research in race relations

was inaugurated recently by the Division of the Social Sciences of the University of Chicago under a \$150,000 grant from the Carnegie Corporation and the Rockefeller Foundation. Louis Wirth, professor of sociology, will direct the study in co-operation with a faculty committee. Pilot projects based on theories formulated by the committee will be set up in various communities.

Community and good teaching "One cannot teach well and get away with it. Our schools are bad because our communities

will not let us teach well. In teaching, one is ever risking martyrdom; every young teacher catches on to that truth after one month of teaching; one is not prepared for it in teachers' colleges." Thus George H. Henry, principal and teacher of English at Dover (Delaware) Community High School, challenges the profession and the people in a provocative article, "Our Best English Unit," appearing in the *English Journal* for September, 1947. If Mr. Henry is still teaching, perhaps that fact is evidence that he has exaggerated the situation somewhat. Never-

theless, Henry's article shows what a master-teacher can do to stimulate a lower-group class "whose 'English' was not too good, to do the social equivalent of the 'bright' pupils even in spite of their lower order of 'formal' communication."

Through a sane form of pupil-teacher planning, the class sought a suitable subject for its assembly panel. When the class was satisfied with the subject "Negro Education in Delaware," Mr. Henry was satisfied too, because he had previously investigated the problem and knew that there were some startling facts to be gathered.

Needless to say, the unit was a success educationally, somewhat less successful if the effect on a placid community were to be taken as the standard. The usual conflict between the concept of the school as an institution reflecting the value positions, including all prejudices, of the community and the concept of the school as an agency for improving the community's values was thoroughly raised.

The [school] board tried to be just and fair and ruled that if there were to be a meeting of races of any kind, the pupils had to receive written permission from home to attend the affair. "That will fix that," said a member. And it did.

On the more far-reaching implications of such teaching, Henry comments:

When the new fad, the community-centered school, gets under way, it will meet with opposition the moment the school acts as leaven in the social order, and superintendents will soon take to cover, and the fad assume a new direction in order to avoid a

head-on clash with politicians and economic pressure. The alternative is to indulge in busy activities in service-club fashion and, like such clubs, to write copious achievement reports, without any actual qualitative improvement in civic sensibility or group understanding.

On the results of his "best unit," Henry remarks:

So, a unit, custom-built to a peculiar use and not a textbook-invented one, dies as it is born, and yet it can be followed as it transmutes itself into the living flesh of dozens of youth who act under its influence weeks after its literal presentation; and who at some more distant time will, on occasion, act more tolerantly than they would have acted had they never once helped a teacher create something that they can never get quite out of their minds. For the town library has already made concessions, and for the first time colored youth may enter our county oratorical contest. And now, a year later, the honor society petitions the board to invite the colored honor society to their county conference.

RELIGION AND EDUCATION

THE American Council on Education, through its Committee on Religion and Education, which has recently issued a pamphlet entitled *The Relation of Religion to Public Education: The Basic Principles*, has entered a controversy, or series of related controversies, the outcome of which is of great significance for American education. Declaring that "religion is either central in human life or it is inconsequential" the committee contends that the doctrine of separation of church and state "may not be invoked to prevent public education from determining on its own merits the question how the religious

phases of the culture shall be recognized in the school program." They seek a middle way between the relegation of religion in the minds of the young to a position of relative unimportance (as they think the omission of reference to religion by schools would operate) and the identification of public education with a particular body of sectarian beliefs and practices.

The committee holds that, although the public schools may not support "any particular religious system," it is a responsibility of public education to "impel the young toward a vigorous, decisive personal reaction to the challenge of religion." They maintain, as a corollary, that teacher-education institutions should accept responsibility for preparing teachers to deal intelligently and respectfully with the religious phases of their several disciplines. The committee disapproves of any attempt to "distil from our major religious faiths certain common ideas and propositions . . . and make of these a common core of religious instruction" in the schools. The question of weekday religious education was considered by the committee as "peripheral to the subject of this report."

We have been content to state the pros and cons concerning its most controversial phase—the conducting of sectarian classes in school buildings by representatives of the several faiths.

In their argument for their "middle way," the committee use as a relevant analogy the case of the teaching of controversial issues in the social stud-

ies. This formulation of the viewpoint of progressive educators of "teaching for democracy" is worthy of thoughtful consideration:

To be educated does not mean to have been taught what to think, but it does mean to have learned what to think *about* and to have acquired definite convictions with respect to values. . . . Society inevitably demands that its schools equip the young with a lively appreciation of their cultural heritage and prepare them to carry forward the main stream of the culture. . . . Hence . . . the controversy about whether education is transmissive or critical is in some sense artificial. Education must be both. It must equip the young not only to *pass* on the culture but to *pass on* the culture. Only an appreciative understanding of tradition makes possible a critical appraisal of it.

Since this report is avowedly centered on issues of principle rather than the setting-forth of a thoroughly thought-out program, the absence of the latter does not constitute a valid criticism of the work, though it certainly detracts from its immediate usefulness. In a review article in the *Nation's Schools* for July, V. T. Thayer, educational director of the Ethical Culture Schools of New York City, warns of the serious dangers which, in his opinion, this report implies for social cohesion.

Although the Committee on Religion and Education of the American Council treated the "released-time" question as peripheral, there are those who think it a central point in a vital issue which involves fundamental principles in the American tradition. In his *Democracy's Case against Religious Education on School Time* (reprinted from the *Journal of Liberal*

Religion by the Beacon Press of Boston), Gerald F. Weary argues that the released-time plan is "a dangerous opening wedge for the violation of the American principle" of the separation of church and state and that it leads to feuds and a heightening of sectarianism. Weary suggests that "the subject of religion" might properly be treated in the schools if it were approached "in an open-minded, democratic manner, [if] there [were] no indoctrination, [if] the pupils [were] permitted to ask questions and be given factual answers, and [if] the virtues as well as the failings of the churches and denominations [were] discussed objectively. It would not be easy."

The same issue, with others, is also discussed in Conrad H. Moehlman's *The Church as Educator*, published recently by Hinds, Hayden, and Eldredge, in which a fifteen-count indictment against the released-time plan is set forth.

A separate but related issue is that of the appropriation of public funds to aid privately controlled schools or to facilitate the education of pupils therein. Last winter the United States Supreme Court, by a vote of five to four, decided that towns and villages in the United States may now repay parents for bus rides of their children to Roman Catholic schools. Thomas Reed Powell, Story professor of law in the Harvard Law School, discusses this decision and the several opinions of the members of the court in the Spring, 1947, issue of the *Harvard Educational Review* under the title, "Public Rides to Private

Schools." Digests of the dissenting opinions of Mr. Justice Jackson and of Mr. Justice Rutledge may be found in the *Nation's Schools* for July and August, respectively.

EXAMINATIONS AND TEACHING

THERE is a story, for the historical accuracy of which the writer does not vouch, that one of Woodrow Wilson's students, after failing an examination, complained, "This examination is unfair; it requires thought." Such a student would not sympathize with the point of view expressed in the article, "Examinations as Instruments of, and Obstacles to, General Education," appearing in this issue of the *School Review*. The author, Lewis A. Dexter, who is a lecturer at Hobart and William Smith Colleges, maintains that examinations should be on the subject or skill, not on the particular facts of a specific course. This statement, though not so intended, is an argument for that unpopular form of examination which is given by an outside examining body. An example of such a system, which nevertheless normally maintains close and friendly relations with the teaching staff, is described by Paul B. Diederich, associate professor of English in the College and examiner at the University of Chicago, in the article, "The Effects of Independent Comprehensive Examinations" (also in this issue of the *School Review*). Although both articles are based on college situations, the fact is that many of the students with whom Diederich deals are no older than students in the upper two years of

high school. The extent of agreement between these two writers is striking. It must, of course, be remembered that both men are writing about the use of examinations in situations where there is greater-than-usual agreement on, or concern with, the content and methods of instruction for a good general education.

As a teacher who knows one of these examining systems at first hand, this writer would like to reinforce the emphasis placed by both authors on the value of such examinations *as a means of improving instruction*. Although they are the exception, some otherwise excellent teachers never master the art of constructing really good objective examinations. Ordinarily there are few, if any, better ways to secure a staff's practical agreement on the objectives and the basic content of a course than to have individual teachers construct test items and to submit these to staff criticism. As a proper "follow-up" to these articles, we need an account of similar work in the construction and use of examinations in a large or a middle-sized city school system.

UNDEMOCRATIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

CAN schools that are run undemocratically teach democracy? Certainly it seems a bit difficult. With the creation in 1941 of the National Commission for the Defense of Democracy through Education of the National Education Association, another agency for investigating and reporting on flagrant violations of teachers' rights

was instituted. The recent *McCook, Nebraska: An Example of Some Effects of Undemocratic School Administration in a Small Community* reports what can happen to a school system in which antiquated ideas of administrator-teacher relationships persist and in which "face-saving" proclivities are indulged too freely. At least those are the conclusions which this report, in the absence of other evidence, suggests. The *NEA Journal* for September, in an article on the North College Hill (Ohio) case, gives a report by Richard B. Kennan, on what may happen when a school board interferes unwarrantably in matters properly belonging to the professional staff.

Some teachers have found what they consider most adequate protection of their professional rights through the formation of strong locals of the American Federation of Teachers. This issue is debated in the September *Rotarian*, with Meyer Halushka and Joy Elmer Morgan upholding, respectively, the affirmative and the negative of the question: "Should teachers join unions and strike if they want to?"

The main argument advanced by

Halushka, vice-president of the American Federation of Teachers, is that affiliation with organized labor (or a large segment of it) gives teachers a strength which the "3 R's of the professional organizations—Research, Resolutions, and Respectability"—never afforded them. Morgan, who is editor of the *NEA Journal*, states three reasons why teachers should not join unions: (1) that, by so doing, they ally themselves in an organized way with only one part of the society by whom they are employed; (2) that they stand toward children in the place of parents; and (3) that they "get more for themselves even in a material way . . . by co-operation, good will, and collective bargaining on a *professional* plane."

As Maurice L. Hartung, associate professor of the teaching of mathematics at the University of Chicago, suggested in the *School Review* last December, teachers face the problem of "simultaneously maintaining professional status and bringing on anti-labor or economy-minded board members adequate pressure to effect the necessary salary increases."

ROBERT E. KEOHANE

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

Authors of news notes and articles

The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT E. KEOHANE, assistant professor of the social sciences in the College of the University of Chicago.

JAMES E. SPITZNAS, supervisor of curriculum in the State Department of Education, Baltimore, Maryland, presents a discussion of the core curriculum and its applications. H. C. DENT, editor of the London *Times Educational Supplement*, discusses the raising of the school-leaving age in Britain and its implications for secondary schools.

PAUL B. DIEDERICH, associate professor of English in the College and examiner at the University of Chicago, considers the topic of independent comprehensive examinations and their effects. LEWIS A. DEXTER, lecturer at Hobart and William Smith Colleges, Geneva, New York, explains how examinations can become either

tools of, or obstacles to, general education. GUSTAVE A. FEINGOLD, principal of Bulkeley High School in Hartford, Connecticut, illustrating with actual case studies, describes the guidance program which is in effect in his school. The selected references on the administration of secondary education have been prepared by GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and ARNO A. BELLACK, instructor in education at the University of Illinois.

Reviewers of books

ROBERT H. ANDERSON, principal of the Roosevelt School, River Forest, Illinois. OTIS D. FROE, dean of students at Wilberforce University, Wilberforce, Ohio. EDWIN S. LIDE, teacher of English at Lake View High School, Chicago, Illinois.

THE CORE CURRICULUM: FORM OR PROCESS?

JAMES E. SPITZNAS

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CURRICULUM STUDY

A LITTLE more than six years ago, L. T. Hopkins, of Teachers College, Columbia University, sought to place on a scale or continuum the various kinds of curriculums to be found in American schools. He discovered that the term "core" was used in some instances to designate a type of curriculum only one step removed from the traditional subjects-for-their-own-sakes brand and, in other instances, to refer to a type of curriculum only one step distant from the purest kind of experience organization. Hopkins makes this most significant statement:

This [discrepancy] is due to the differences in meaning which various persons assign to these words. Under such conditions the only safe method of locating a type of curriculum is to view it in operation in the community, for the practice tells more concerning the reality of the situation than is sometimes conveyed by the words used in describing it.¹

Hopkins is saying here that neither the label nor the so-called philosophies, formally presented as introductions to units and courses of study,

¹ L. Thomas Hopkins, *Interaction: the Democratic Process*, p. 19. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1941.

will give a clue to the reality. There is only one way to apprehend the educational reality, to know what curriculum is actually in effect, and that is to study and apprehend it as a process. This statement should not be taken to mean that printed curriculum materials do not afford some insight into the kind of process in operation in classrooms where these materials are intended to apply. Despite avowals to the contrary, specifications of required or preferred subject content usually betray the conceptions of process that lie back of them. A study of the courses on file at the Curriculum Library of the United States Office of Education reveals, in most instances, rather pretentious philosophies that reflect advanced views of the nature of child needs and of the educative process; but the study of specified content which follows the exposition of philosophy is usually disillusioning. Expressions of faith and understanding are succeeded by the prosiest and most deadening kinds of subject outlines indicating that the writer was thinking all along of education as the process of transposing verbalisms from books to minds.

There is rarely any clash between

avowed philosophies, even though one prefaces the immemorial practices and another envisions students embracing and espousing knowledge as they experience its use and its worth. Several years ago, when Maryland applied the Evaluative Criteria developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards to most of its secondary schools, it was discovered that the educative processes, as exemplified in actual classroom practices, varied widely from school to school and yet invariably the philosophical façades were strikingly alike in their expressions of democracy and functional effectiveness. The clash is not between formalized statements of philosophy or between specifications of desirable content. It is between two conceptions of the educative process, and it is to this front, rather than to considerations of printed forms, revisions of traditional outlines, and the recasting of time-honored curriculum prescriptions, that we ought to devote ourselves.

It is the recurring problem of every social agency and of every social institution that the form of the organization tends to become an end in itself and that the services of individuals are judged in terms of their appropriateness for this form. The structural arrangement of blocks, divisions, and compartments takes on a hoary sacredness, and the vital social processes going on outside the agency tend to be lost sight of completely. Witness the lack of co-ordination among the social agencies of the community.

Witness the futile, repetitious, and unscientific formulas which are applied to the problems of chronic alcoholism, delinquency, divorce, and malnutrition. Witness the ancient organization of the high school. Observe the mechanics only—mathematics and science and social studies and English, each static in its well-worn time groove of forty-five to sixty minutes, each forever divorced from the other in a world whose counterpart exists nowhere outside the school.

COURSE-OF-STUDY UNITS

School people, generally, do not see, and, if they do, they certainly do not accept the fact, that the purpose of a curriculum-development program is to shift from one educative process to another, to disengage themselves from a program that goes on in schools, and nowhere else, and to identify themselves with the ways of the biological and social processes as they would have them operate democratically outside the school. School people do not yet seem to be aware that this shift is necessary and desirable. More than twenty years have passed since the writer was first engaged in a curriculum-development program that was both extensive and intensive. It extended over a long period of time, and it required concentrated application to the business of devising course-of-study units and distinguishing these units from teaching units. The course-of-study units consisted of statements of purpose, outlines of appropriate content, kinds of activities,

desired outcomes, methods of evaluation, and sources of information for pupils and teachers. The teaching units consisted of a description of how the teacher, knowing the capacities and interests of the members of his class, might derive from the course-of-study units activities and content and evaluations that would fit his group.

Today we are busy pulling the labels off the course-of-study units and substituting a label which has "resource unit" printed on it, and over the label on the teaching unit we are pasting one bearing the magic name "the core." In a curriculum-development program, particularly as it involves secondary schools, a problem of primary importance has to do with disengaging school people from hypnotic absorption in the forms of curriculum materials as ends in themselves and with concentrating faculties of critical judgment and discrimination on classroom operations and on educative processes.

Here is the real battlefield and here, in this area, where highly verbalistic education has been engaged in doling out information bit by bit on the additive principle, a new and more promising process is struggling valorously for its chance. This process represents education on the integrative principle. It has to do with the individual's right to plan and to act in accord with his personal and social needs (the two are one and inseparable); to relate means to ends; to experience relativity of values; to stand, not as a passive receptionist within the cloistered school, but at the center of

his real living outside the school, in home and neighborhood and community, and demand that school people take their stands there, too; to learn to size up the situation skilfully; to project courses of action effectively; and to meet successfully the issues of childhood, of adolescence, of youth, and of manhood. Administrators, supervisors, teachers, pupils, and parents must invent the means of effecting this dynamic process. They must know in advance that these means will take a thousand forms, though they do not know specifically what these forms will be until the forms have been invented in the process itself. The written curriculum will then be the reports and communications of the experiences people have—their relative successes and failures—in creating this process.

Surely the forms that will be created, as school people and laymen work together in the process itself, will not be those which were devised by selected teachers and specialists when the doling out of information on the additive principle was the determinative consideration. Then the form was the textbook, which the pupils memorized and which the teacher supplemented. Then the form was the prescription of the particular course of study, with activities that might carry this sacred subject matter. Then the form was the so-called "problem," actually a subject-matter question answered long ago and formulated again by teacher and pupils for the purposes of the game they were playing.

In this new and different process,

the forms of the pupils' experiences will be shaped by a variety of considerations—for example, by their own health and that of their neighbors (my own and my neighbors' welfare will be found to be the obverse and the reverse of one coin). They will be shaped by the need for physical and emotional maturity, by the interplay of cultures in the classroom, as well as in the world arena, by the necessity for analyzing and planning in order to find the common ground for group action, and by building on this a constructive program, thus expanding this common ground. The ever-present need of determining ratios of exchange; the relative values which run through all the little affairs of childhood and finally reach up to the determination of one's life purposes; the governmental processes, not the structure of local, state, and national governments, but a matter of much deeper import—the control and guidance of this sensitive, marvelously efficient organism of ours—all will go into shaping the new forms of experience.

To the furtherance of this educative process, each pupil may bring his individual services, aptitudes, interests, and abilities, and he may express, in a form that is congenial to him, the results of this experience in a group enterprise. It is just at this point that the Harvard report, *General Education in a Free Society*³ falls down. It has

much to say about Jeffersonianism and Jacksonianism, education for the select and education for the masses, specialization and general education and their interrelationships. It falls short, however, in its explicit statement of the fact that in the common processes of living, we are one—we have our kinship—but that in the character of the specific needs we bring to these processes and in the forms in which we express our experiences, we are forever unique and individual. The problem of mastering the process of government or the process of evaluation is vastly different for a person who comes from an upper, middle-class home and who is, let us say, shielded and overprotected and paternalistically controlled than for a person who comes from one of the lowest-income families and who happens to be the one of five children who is unwanted and rejected. In either instance, moralizing about government as self-control is almost a profanation. In the first case, the teacher must build upon the pupil's experiences in the home, in the school, and perhaps in the church. This pupil's experiences have been colored and warped by oversolicitousness—government as benevolent despotism. In the second case, the teacher must build upon the pupil's experiences in the home and school and perhaps with the agencies of public health and welfare and with the probationary practices of the court. This pupil's experiences have been colored and warped by the attitudes of a resentful mother and by the

³ *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1945.

acts of a series of inquisitors—government as malevolent despotism and government as investigation.

The Harvard report falls down in another respect, one which is, perhaps, more fundamental than the first. After all its philosophizing about unity and kinds of difference, it returns, like the courses in the Library of the United States Office of Education, to the humanities, the sciences, and the social studies and to splitting them up into their respective subjects. These courses are representative of the old high school, which has not yet passed and in which all pupils study *Hamlet* or *A Tale of Two Cities* or *The Mill on the Floss*. What is more, the pupils study not just the forms in which master craftsmen have expressed themselves—the drama or the novel or the lyric—they study the form in which a particular craftsman has expressed himself. They study it analytically, presumably for the purpose of apprehending the trade secrets of the writer. It is an exercise in specialization, in vocational education.

THE NEW HIGH SCHOOL

In the new high school, which becomes the extension of the common school, the concerns of the teacher must change from the form which is individual and unique to the process which is common and inclusive. He must shift from *A Tale of Two Cities* to the processes of revolution or the processes of friendship; from *Hamlet* to the processes that make and unmake character. If the processes of friend-

ship are the unifying principle, then there may be provision in the scheme of things for studying and understanding Saul and David, for example, or Damon and Pythias; for making friends with both the glamour girl of the class and the pupil who comes from across the tracks; for consideration of the structural barriers to friendship in the community and in our emotions; for studying the wider ramifications of the process which might conceivably operate to heal nations as well as to make wholesome personalities. In this process there will be a place for developing the attitudes and techniques which merit and maintain friendship, for the limited contributions of the pupil who reads on the fourth-grade level and for the pupil who, at the close of the group enterprise, is able to write a lovely lyric.

If this second pupil goes on writing lyrics, he may become a specialist and, if, by and by, he makes his living at it, he will have made it his vocation. The same speculations hold true for the boy who wires the stage for the dramatization of the class enterprise. If there are enough pupils interested in the vocation of writing lyrics, there might ultimately be—say when they reach Grade XII or XIV—a class of lyric writers. There we would have education for specialization, and all pupils who could not write lyrics on an acceptable level would be excluded.

This arrangement, though practical and desirable in itself, carries with it a grave danger, the apparent connota-

tion that the world was made for lyric-writers. The only way in which this danger can be obviated is to require that the writers of lyrics return constantly to the larger social and educational context, in order to see that special education is only one aspect of general education. The writers must see that their lyrics gather vitality from the life-processes in the community and that they must change their forms and their tones as social conditions change. David Lilienthal tells us in *TVA: Democracy on the March*³ that his greatest difficulty was with the specialists. As technicians, they were superb, but as co-operative workers in the common enterprise of rehabilitating life in the Tennessee Valley, they left much to be desired.

In working together to clarify their thinking about this process and its implications, school people will encounter many obstacles and many setbacks. There will be the bugaboos of the college-entrance requirements and the standards set by the accrediting agencies and by the state departments of education. After these incorporeal enemies, which are now largely hallucinatory, have been dissipated, the attitudes of leading laymen will be encountered. What is to become of 'real learning'? What becomes of important subject matter? These are basic questions which must be answered. Wise school people will equip themselves to demonstrate that

facts and skills, arts and sciences are taught most abundantly and economically when they are important parts of an important social enterprise.

Supporters of the modern school know that traditional methods and organizations have suffered their greatest failures in the work they claim as their special forte. In summarizing their chapter on the permanence of schooling, as shown by various studies of the matter, Pressey and Robinson make the following statement:

The findings regarding the permanence of schooling are, for the most part, distressing. From elementary school to college the evidence indicates that pupils have forgotten most of what they learned of a subject a few months after they studied it. Even minimal essentials, such as the fundamentals of arithmetic presumably well learned in the grades, may present difficulties to a college student. . . . There is a little evidence that, once learned, more general abilities as in applying principles or drawing inferences may become a more permanent possession of a young mind. But all too often such abilities are not learned in the first place.⁴

The quality, the quantity, and the permanence of learning are dependent on the degree to which learning is meaningful, the extent to which the learner participates in exploring and selecting subject matter that is most pertinent in terms of group usage, the extent to which it is necessary to recall and use the subject matter in

³ David E. Lilienthal, *TVA: Democracy on the March*, pp. 65-66. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.

⁴ Sidney L. Pressey and Francis P. Robinson, *Psychology and the New Education*, p. 566. New York: Harper & Bros., 1933.

other situations, and the extent to which the subject matter is learned by wholes rather than by isolated detail.

These criteria do not point to some highly mechanical and formal procedure which, after a while, becomes another prescription like the Herbartian steps or the Morrison plan. Rather, they point to such unified and vital processes as are exemplified in the Sloan Foundation experiments under the direction of Harold Clark of Columbia University, in the child-study program as this is carried on under the auspices of the Collaboration Center of the University of Chicago, and in the practices of some of the schools reported in the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association.

The group selection of enterprises which are known to be important

through evidences in pupils' homes and neighborhoods and in their own persons; the planning whereby they hope to come to grips with this reality that they may better control it for their own good and for the commonweal; the use of the powerful instrument of science, both as a method of attack and as validated data; their constant evaluation of data and of possible courses of action; the expressions of their experiences in forms most congenial to them—all these together constitute the educative process that yields learning which is economical and effective and enduring. The evidence, though not conclusive, points in this direction. It is to this process, not to any curriculum form, that we in Maryland have elected for the present to give the name "the core."

RAISING THE SCHOOL-LEAVING AGE IN BRITAIN¹

H. C. DENT

Times Educational Supplement, London



TO THE educationist the raising of the compulsory school-attendance age to fifteen on April 1, 1947, is only the first of a series of steps designed to improve substantially the general level of education in Great Britain. Not that raising the age has no value in itself. It has a twofold value. It will keep boys and girls in school—that is, in an environment designed for the benefit of children—and out of wage-earning employment, which is not primarily designed for children, during a year when the mental and physical disturbances of adolescence are at their height. That is a very great gain; for, of all ages, fourteen is about the worst for a sudden switch from school to employment.

The added year is one in which most children mature rapidly. It should, therefore, do much more than add a single year to the previous two years of secondary education. Moreover, it is impossible to plan a satisfactory secondary course, of any kind, to cover only two years. The normal child who leaves school at fourteen does so

just at the moment when he is really beginning to understand, and to appreciate, the value of what he is doing in school. With the school-leaving age set at fifteen, both child and teacher will have a real chance.

Of course, the value of the additional year will depend largely on how the fourteen-year-olds are handled, on what and, just as important, how they are taught. This additional education is of crucial importance to Britain. The country is critically short of manpower, and the government's recent decision to persist in raising the school-leaving age despite the country's lack of workers is, in effect, a gamble that the schools will, if they are allowed to keep children until they are fifteen, produce potentially better citizens and better workers, in short, that the deficit in quantity will be made up by an increase in quality.

How far the schools will be able to accomplish this objective depends first on the conditions in which they will have to work. Happily, thanks to the emergency scheme of training begun in 1945, there will be sufficient teachers. Already over 1,000 have passed

¹ An address originally delivered over the British Broadcasting Corporation.

from the Emergency Colleges into Britain's schools, and another 1,300 will have entered the teaching service in March and April. Thereafter, teachers from these colleges will flow into the schools at the rate of 10,000-12,000 a year. The permanent training facilities have also been expanded; the output of the training colleges and the university training departments has been increased from under 7,000 to over 10,000 a year.

Many of us in Britain thought that the supply of teachers would be the main obstacle to speedy reforms in education. We have been proved wrong. There has been no lack of candidates—rather the reverse—and those candidates who have been accepted are first-class people. We are up against it regarding buildings, however. Thousands of schools were destroyed or badly damaged during the war. Even without counting this loss, the raising of the age to fifteen demands an additional 390,000 school places, mercifully, not all at once, because the entire age group of fourteen-to fifteen-year-olds will not be in the schools until September, 1948, but, still, within a short time.

We are behindhand with the building program. To provide the required accommodation, prefabricated huts are being added to existing school buildings, with an occasional school erected in "light-construction" material in areas where new houses are being put up in numbers and where there are no schools. Though the erection of these huts and new schools has been

given equal priority with the building of houses, such is the shortage of labor and materials that, of the 1,149 rooms due to have been ready by August, 1946, only 60 were completed by March, 1947, at which time 375 had not been begun.

That difficulty will be overcome. Britain's local education authorities learned so thoroughly in 1939, 1940, and 1941, when our school children were being evacuated in hundreds of thousands, how to improvise school accommodations that improvisation now has few terrors for them. Still it is not merely a matter of finding places for the children who are staying in school the additional year; it is also a matter of giving them genuine secondary education. Here we come to the hard core of the problem.

It does not affect the most intellectually able children. For over forty years pupils of this type have had, in increasing numbers, the opportunity to secure a secondary education that lasted until they were at least sixteen and, if they so desired, until they were eighteen, with the possibility of going on to university or other higher education. As you know, however, in 1944, Britain decided to extend secondary education to all children, which means to the 88 per cent who were getting only elementary-school education before.

Raising the compulsory school age to fifteen is the first main step toward this end. It is being taken in face of two serious obstacles. With rare exceptions, the schools in which the 88

per cent will have to be educated are neither designed nor equipped for secondary education. These schools cannot be rebuilt for years. The problem is particularly acute in the rural areas, where many schools are still "all-age" schools, that is, single buildings housing children of all ages from five to fifteen. The difficulty will be met by transferring the older children to a modern school; by grouping children from several schools; and by using handwork and residential centers, traveling specialist teachers, etc. Even so, the arrangements are not satisfactory.

The second difficulty—the vital one—is that no one yet knows exactly what forms of secondary education the

88 per cent need. Everyone is certain that the traditional academic type is unsuitable. Everyone agrees that their work must be more practical and that it must not become merely vocational training. These children, equally with their cleverer brothers and sisters, must be enabled to enter into the heritage of Western culture.

Britain's teachers and educationists have long been endeavoring to think out this problem in theory. In the past, where children have stayed on voluntarily until fifteen, it has been possible to experiment, but since April 1, 1947, we have come up against it full-scale. Upon its solution depends the ultimate justification for raising the school-leaving age.

THE EFFECTS OF INDEPENDENT COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATIONS

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THE College of the University of Chicago has now completed its fifteenth year of operation under a system of comprehensive examinations which are prepared, administered, and marked by an independent Board of Examinations and which are the sole basis for granting degrees. After a student has been admitted (on the basis of a three-hour test of reading, writing, and intelligence), he is given four days of placement tests to discover what parts of the College program he needs in order to complete the requirements for the degree. He is usually required to pass between five and fourteen six-hour comprehensive examinations in specified subjects. The normal preparation for each comprehensive is three quarters of work in one course, but students may prepare in any way that they find congenial and effective and may take the examination whenever they are ready. They may repeat examinations in different forms in order to pass or to attain a mark which they regard as satisfactory, but repeated failure in more than half the examinations attempted in any given year may involve withdrawal from college.

PREPARATION OF EXAMINATIONS

Each examination is prepared by an examiner in consultation with the teaching staff which prepares students for that examination. The contribution of the teaching staff varies with the complexity of the examination, the competence of the examiner, and the number of students involved. In some of the smaller elective courses for which there is no examiner who knows the course as intimately as the teaching staff, the teachers write the whole examination, and the examiner serves only as critic; in some of the major examinations which require over five hundred objective items, if the examiner is unable to prepare all the questions himself, he solicits contributions from interested and qualified teachers. The present tendency is for the examiner to secure agreement of the teaching staff upon a statement of objectives and upon sample items as truly representing the behavior designated by the objectives. Then the examiner writes the examination in accordance with these specifications and submits it for criticism to a small committee of the teaching staff concerned. The examiner tries to prepare an ex-

amination which will be acceptable to the staff, without making it an instrument to discover whether students have done the required work. In general, the teaching staff approves of examinations which reveal the competence which the course is designed to develop rather than familiarity with the means used to attain that competence.

Teachers have no direct control over the mark which any given student will receive. When marks are set, each student is represented only by a tally in a distribution of total scores on the examination. Lines are drawn across the distribution by the examiner and the chairman or a committee of the course. These lines are established partly by an "absolute" standard (a careful estimate of what an educated man ought to be able to do on the various parts of the examination) and partly by experience with students' scores on similar items in the past. Since the number of students involved is usually large, the distribution of marks usually resembles a normal curve, but the curve is never followed slavishly. The percentage of failure, for example, varies from none at all to about 30 per cent, although such extreme cases would probably be investigated by the University Examiner to discover what special circumstances had upset the normal expectation. No one, not even the examiner, knows what mark any given student will receive before the distribution lines have been set, and no one has power to alter any individ-

ual mark thereafter. Under this system, teachers do not tell their students, but ask them, what marks they have received.

This system of comprehensive examinations has now been used in the College over a period of fifteen years. While a similar system is very common abroad, it is relatively uncommon here, and any institution which has tried it for so long a period has an obligation to report how it works. The present report has no official status, but, for that very reason, it can discuss with greater freedom the advantages and disadvantages that one of the examiners sees in the system.

MEETING OBJECTIONS TO THE SYSTEM

The chief objection voiced by the opponents of the system at its inception was that it would lead students to study only for the examination, with no intention of remembering or using what they had learned for their own purposes. This criticism implied that students would probably neglect their work through the first two quarters of each year and "cram" desperately in the third. It also implied that students would devote their whole attention to the recall of facts, with no regard to the use of those facts in their thinking or to the development of interests, attitudes, and appreciations. It was feared that the system would not only compel all teachers to teach exactly the same things in the same ways but would reduce instruction to the level of instruction found in the coaching schools, which endeavor to

guess what will appear in the forthcoming examinations of the neighboring university and to "cram" their clientele with the requisite information in the shortest possible time. It was feared that any instructor who tried to lead his students in the adventures of the soul among masterpieces would be met by a cold stare and the question, "Will that be in the examination?"

While these dangers always have to be guarded against, they have not proved serious in practice. Students and teachers do not respond to one element in the educational system as though it were the only element. The teachers want the students to learn certain things which they regard as important, and most students respond by regarding these things important, too. At least one hears them discussed in dormitories, in the coffee shop, and all over the campus as students discuss problems with which they identify themselves. There seems to be no alarming tendency on the part of either students or staff to use the examination as anything but a convenient measuring device to find out whether these important things have really been learned.

The examinations do not place undue emphasis on the recall of facts. Even in the sciences, the time and weight given to the recall of facts are never more than 30 per cent of the examination. Chief emphasis is given to the use of facts in solving problems that have not been discussed in the course. In literature, half or more of

the examination is based on works prepared independently by students, without class discussion, to demonstrate their mastery of the methods of analysis taught in the course. They cannot merely remember the instructor's interpretation; they must work out their own. If students focus their attention on such examinations, they will be learning exactly what their instructors want them to learn anyway. These general principles and intellectual skills are retained unusually well. There have been many opportunities for retesting, as students come back for further study, and no serious loss has been discovered in the kinds of outcomes which are given greatest weight in the comprehensives. While no college knows the extent to which its students use what they have learned for their own purposes, there is at least no evidence that these students forget what they have learned as soon as possible after the examination.

There is some regimentation of teaching in the College, but little of it could be laid at the door of the examinations, and that little could be avoided. The College offers only fourteen general courses, which are required of every student, unless he is excused by placement tests. Hence, each of the general courses enrolls hundreds of students and is taught by a staff of from ten to thirty teachers. All teachers of a given course use the same syllabus, which is prepared and revised annually by the staff, and they meet once a week to discuss ways of dealing

with the materials which they are about to teach. It becomes apparent in these meetings that the materials are used in the greatest diversity of ways. The examiner attends all these meetings, notes the divergent views which are expressed, and obtains from them a clearer view of the more basic matters which are to be tested and which underlie the diverse procedures used by various staff members. As a result, he prepares questions that deal with the general objectives of the course rather than with any particular means of reaching these objectives.

Since the university examiner is responsible to the chancellor of the University rather than to the dean of the College and since the examiner in each field is responsible to the university examiner, it was once feared that the examiners would dictate the curriculum. This danger has been avoided through the convention that the examiner must secure the agreement of the teaching staff to every objective covered by the examination. He has no authority to tell the staff what to do; he has to find out what they are trying to do and then prepare items related to these purposes and no others. He need not secure staff agreement to every item, but if an item could be shown to bear no relation to any of the announced purposes of the staff, the examiner would be subjected to severe censure.

The chief criticism of the teaching staff is that the examination system gives them no control over students. They admit that, if they were perfect

teachers, they would not need a goad; students would follow willingly wherever they led. But in this imperfect world, they contend, a goad is sometimes necessary. If they make an assignment and students disregard it, the worst they can say is, "If this neglect continues, you will probably get an F on the comprehensive." They cannot say, "I will give you an F." They know, and the students know, that instructors have no control over marks.

On the other hand, this lack of control over marks has its compensations. It is a blessed relief to most teachers to be freed from the pressure of the importunate student—sometimes that of his parents as well. In most colleges, some students contest every mark, from the first paper in the course to the final examination. Some try to influence marks by the procedures known as "apple-polishing," while others argue or cry. Under an independent examination system, it is easy to explain to students that all preliminary marks, such as those on assigned papers, quizzes, and quarterly examinations, represent only an estimate of progress toward passing the comprehensive. They will not stand in the record, and there is no point in arguing about them. If a student fails the comprehensive, the instructor can explain, in all sincerity, that he had nothing whatever to do with setting the mark and has no power to alter it. In most cases, he does not even know the mark until the student tells him. He never has to look a well-meaning

but incompetent student in the eye and tell him, "I gave you an F." The terrible responsibility of judging people at the end of every course is taken off his shoulders. Shelving this responsibility has a most beneficial effect on the relations of students and teachers. They are both on the same side of the fence. It is up to the students to pass the comprehensive; the teacher is there only to help them as much as he can. He is not their taskmaster and judge. He assigns no rewards or penalties. He is their friend and guide.

There is no evidence of widespread or serious neglect of assigned work. On the contrary, students work uncommonly hard, perhaps harder than is good for them. If an occasional assignment is disregarded, it may, or may not, be a real loss. If students did everything that all their instructors wanted them to do, they would soon be working sixteen hours a day. Furthermore, it must be granted that not all assignments are so carefully considered that students will really suffer if they omit them. Some of them deserve to be disregarded. A system which allows some latitude in this respect is probably healthier than one which requires conformity to every whim of the instructor.

The question may still be raised, however, whether the final judgment of the student's competence in a given field should not be filtered through the mind of someone who knows the student. Perhaps the examination should be used as a doctor uses a clinical ther-

mometer. The doctor wants the thermometer to register the correct temperature, uninfluenced by any sentiment toward the patient, but his final diagnosis of the case is a human judgment, taking into account everything he knows about the patient. In the same fashion, perhaps the result of the examination should be reported to the instructor and be used by him, along with any other evidence at his disposal, to determine the student's mark. Isn't it true that some students who have worked very hard, and who desperately need encouragement, still fail the examination? And that some shiftless ones who have never been near the course manage to slip by?

It is true that these things happen, but it is still questionable whether the responsibility for determining marks should be thrown back on the instructors. Students respect the mark more and work harder to earn it when they know that it stands for sheer competence in what it says, uninfluenced by docility, regularity of attendance, completion of assignments, participation in class discussion, promptness, neatness, appearance, affability, and other irrelevant matters. Also, it is arguable that the "doctor" in this case is not properly the instructor but the adviser, who is selected and trained especially for this work, who knows more of the student's background and circumstances, and who has more sources of information about him than any one instructor. The adviser should have at his disposal marks which mean exactly what they are supposed to

mean and then have the power to save a deserving student from any harsh consequences. The shiftless students can be caught by the mechanism of reports to the adviser, in which the instructor can speak his mind fully, without restricting himself to five letters of the alphabet, and the adviser can take any action which seems warranted. When one further considers the extreme variability of instructors in assigning marks, the great difficulty of approximating a common standard, and the substantial benefits which instructors gain from not having this responsibility, one is glad to leave the determination of marks to an impersonal agency and to allow the advisers to temper the wind to the shorn lamb.

Another criticism of comprehensive examinations is that they are probably conducive to the development of neuroses. This charge would be so serious, if true, that it would outweigh all the benefits of the system, but thus far there is no evidence, or even any substantial probability, that it is true. The incidence of actual breakdown, for example, is negligible—if even one such case could be called negligible—and is certainly no higher than in other colleges of comparable size. Examiners and instructors frequently observe students during examinations with a watchful eye for signs of anxiety or undue strain, but they rarely find cause for alarm. What takes the course off the system is that students need not register for an examination until they feel prepared for it, and

some put off the examination for three months or more after completing the course. If they fail or make a low mark at their first attempt, they have only to find out what they did wrong, remedy their weaknesses, and try again three months later. Many students repeat examinations when their initial grade was C, or even B, because they will be satisfied with nothing less than an A. They run no risk, for whichever mark is higher stands in the record. With all these safeguards, it is hard to imagine why comprehensive examinations in themselves should induce neuroses. It is probably true that students who are already neurotic will manifest anxiety toward examinations, as toward any other threat to their security, but it seems highly improbable at present that such anxiety could cause a neurosis. If it combines with the underlying causes to bring out an incipient neurosis, it may be just as well to bring the condition to light while the student is young enough to achieve a cure with relative ease and while he can spend the money set aside for college on the course of treatment that he needs.

On the positive side, the system seems to give students a lively sense of responsibility for their own education. It has repeatedly been found that there is little difference in average scores between different sections of the same course. Students know what they are expected to learn, from the syllabus, from quarterly examinations, and from copies of past comprehensives, and, if their instructors

do not teach them these things, they manage to learn them by themselves.

The effect on standards of accomplishment is salutary. If each teacher sets his own examination, he tends to ask only those questions which most of his students will be able to answer. On the other hand, if the examination is produced by an agency which has no interest in fortifying the ego of the instructors and if it is to be published and subjected to every sort of criticism, it tends to demand whatever the liberally educated man ought to know about the subject. Students know that they cannot rely on any favorable impression which they may have made on the instructor. Their only safety lies in knowing how to answer these hundreds of merciless questions. New instructors are always appalled by the difficulty of the questions, but students somehow rise to them. When Mr. Hutchins was reproached with "debasing" the Bachelor's degree by offering it at the end of the usual Sophomore year, he replied that he would be happy to have the Seniors in any other college take these Sophomore examinations. In one sense his challenge was unfair because students of one college would be at a disadvantage on the examinations of another. However, in the intended sense, the reply was justified because these examinations make the Senior examinations of many other colleges seem childish.

The examinations produced by a full-time professional staff in constant association with a teaching staff are

not only more difficult but are also better examinations—more valid, more objective, and more reliable—than the examinations ordinarily produced by teachers. Many a professor thinks of his examination questions while walking to the examination and then writes them on the blackboard. In some cases, they turn out to be brilliant questions and are marked with great insight and fairness, but, in many other cases, it is largely a matter of chance whether the students happen to be well prepared on these particular questions. In hardly any case could these questions compare with the hundreds of penetrating questions devised by an experienced examiner after months of work which cover every aspect of the course and every type of competence which it is expected to produce.

The manner in which the examinations are prepared tends to make the teaching staff unusually conscious of the objectives of the course. A careful analysis of the results of the examination can also give them a clear picture of their successes and failures. It is a chastening experience to select typical items representing each objective and to count how many students got them right.

Finally, the examination serves as a focal point around which to organize the work of the course. It is a psychological advantage to have a very concrete goal to aim at, with progress toward it indicated by marks on assignments, quizzes, and mid-quarterly and quarterly examinations. The final

comprehensive reviews the work of the whole course, brings all parts of it into fruitful interplay with one another, and shows clearly what the student is now able to do with all the facts and skills which he has learned. Even as ritual it serves a useful purpose.

IMPLICATIONS FOR OTHER SCHOOLS

If even a small school wished to institute a system of comprehensive examinations, it could do so if the principal or the best qualified teacher were authorized to criticize, amend, and finally approve all examinations for credit toward a diploma; if these examinations were made as objective as possible; if essay examinations were marked independently by two readers who did not know the identity of the writers; if marks were set jointly by the examiner and the teachers con-

cerned, prior to learning the identity of the recipients; if a file of past examinations were available to students; and if examinations could be repeated without necessarily repeating the course. In larger schools, one teacher in each main division of the curriculum should be made examiner for that division and should be relieved of at least one class in compensation. As examiner, he should be responsible directly to the principal rather than to the chairman of his division. In still larger schools and in colleges, there should be also a chief examiner, who has had professional training in tests and measurements, to select the examiners in each field and to supervise their work. If these conditions were observed, a comprehensive examination system could be set up which would have all the essential features of the system discussed in this report.

EXAMINATIONS AS INSTRUMENTS OF, AND OBSTACLES TO, GENERAL EDUCATION¹

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MAJOR POINTS

IN DISCUSSING the subject of examinations as instruments of, and obstacles to, general education, I wish to emphasize six major points.

1. *Examinations and methods of marking determine, to a substantial degree, what students learn and how they learn. It is, therefore, incorrect to regard examinations simply as means of selecting and evaluating; they also serve as directives to the student regarding what he should do.* Furthermore, they are directives far more potent than any admonitions or exhortations about the purposes of education. In a competitive society it is appropriate that a good deal of attention should be devoted to ways and means of separating the "sheep" from the "goats";

¹ This article, originally read before the seventh annual Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences in Secondary Schools and Junior Colleges, held at the University of Chicago, July 25, 1947, is part of a group of papers by the writer which are interrelated. These articles include "Analysis of Educational Programs," *School Review*, LIV (May, 1946); "Teaching Social Science as a Set of Skills," *American Sociological Review*, XI (April, 1946); and, with Robert A. Thornton (major author), "Co-operative Areas in the Tasks of the Social and Physical Sciences," a paper which was also read before the seventh Conference for Teachers of the Social Sciences.

but, in so far as we are concerned with producing educated men and women, it is also appropriate that we consider the questions: Can our examination techniques produce a higher type of education? If so, how? What revisions do our methods of marking need?

2. *We need to develop what may be called a sociology of examinations and of marking.* That is, we need to recognize that the effect of examinations on the learning and study habits of our students is determined by the students' social environment and cultural background. For example, students in a highly competitive, mark-hungry environment may be affected by "tough" examinations quite differently from students whose orientation is geared to a "gentleman's C"; and students trained in a Calvinistic notion of absolute truth may rebel against examination techniques which others more predisposed toward external authority may cheerfully accept.²

3. *The sociology of examinations and marking will be useful to teachers who see their task as one of creative, inven-*

² The distinction between "social" and "cultural" is expounded in a number of sociology textbooks, for example, John Frank Cuber, *Sociology: A Synopsis of Principles*, Parts II and III. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1947.

tive adaptation. Like other branches of sociology and the social sciences, it will not give us right answers which apply in a routine fashion, regardless of circumstances. Rather, it can suggest pertinent questions to ask regarding how to examine a particular group of students at a particular time on a particular skill. Concretely, a method of examination which worked very well in a genuinely educational community like Talladega College might not work so well at some other institutions in which I have taught, and a system of marking which is effective for an introductory course in American government and history might prove harmful in an introductory sociology course.

4. *There should be a constant interaction between the method of examining and the specification of objectives for the course and for the student.* Ideally, we should be able to declare our objectives and then discover ways of examining which lead students to learn with maximum effectiveness. In practice, however, it may turn out that the best method of selecting—of separating “good” from “bad” students—is not likely to encourage wholesome methods of learning. Then we are faced with the question: Do we restate or reorganize our objectives or do we have to remain content with an unsatisfactory situation?

Parenthetically, let me state that, until I am confronted with evidence to the contrary, I shall incline strongly to the opinion that the worst possible method of marking is the automatic

transfer to the college level of the elementary-school practice, or its equivalent, in which through charity and timidity, teachers, especially in the social sciences, pass everybody.

5. *Examinations should be on the subject or skill, not on the course.* I place particular emphasis on this statement because I believe that instructors who are interested in general education do more harm to their cause by failure to recognize this principle than by any other one practice; for, if the examination is on the course, no one who has not mastered the special “facts” of that particular course can pass. Consequently, students focus their attention on those “facts” rather than on the essence of the course, that is, the method of thought and analysis employed.³ Any instructor can, of course, prepare an examination which can be passed only by those students who have learned by heart the books covered and the examples used by the instructor, but, if he offers such an examination, his students will, above everything else, develop their skill at learning by heart (or at bluffing).

A course in American institutions given at one university exemplifies the harm which examining on the course does. The central theme of this course is the effect of the Industrial Revolution on political and economic life and organization. The conception is, in general, superb. However, the exami-

³ For a discussion of the importance of method, see Sidney Hook, “The Centrality of Method,” *Education for Modern Man*, pp. 112-38. New York: Dial Press, 1946.

nation questions, nearly all quintuple-choice fact statements, focus on pica-yune details, which, in many instances, persons on the instructional staff did not remember. The instructors rarely dared tell the students what the "right" answer was until they themselves had received the key from the examiner's office. The whole pressure of student opinion, therefore, was oriented toward drill on the syllabus. A responsible official defended this type of examination on the ground that it enabled the university to distinguish between excellent students and others. It certainly did permit the examiners to find those students who were able enough and silly enough and ambitious enough to learn the syllabus by heart. Unfortunately, it also focused the attention of the students, and of everyone else, on beating the examinations rather than on learning a skill. It would have been technically possible to prepare examinations, directed toward measuring achievement in the declared purpose of the course: the ability to read Walter Lippmann, Samuel Grafton, and Dorothy Thompson intelligently. An examination of this sort, however, would have demanded a break with conventional examination systems.

6. *The kind of deductive analysis of possibilities and propositions which I am going to make needs to be supplemented by careful empirical studies of the relation of methods of examinations and marking to student learning and living.* Does the British system of ex-

ternal examinations,⁴ for example, create a kind of baboo learning? What is the effect of the existence of an independent board of examinations at the University of Chicago? At the University of Florida? Of outside honors examiners at Swarthmore?

Of course, the need for testing impressions against systematic observation of events is not confined to the sociology of examinations. It applies to the whole area of the sociology of education.

THE FUNDAMENTAL PROPOSITION

Our fundamental presupposition is that, to the great majority of "promising" college students, the mark and the examination are the core of the course. Students tend to envisage courses as means of earning marks. Nevertheless, ever since I can remember, I have heard teachers sniff and sneer at student interest in marks and examinations. Taking this attitude is as foolish as it would be for an employer to sniff and sneer at worker interest in wages and promotion and job security. Furthermore, the kind of teacher who is interested in general education is the kind most likely to sniff and sneer in this way; mechanical-minded teachers are far more likely to take marks seriously but, of course, with a mechanical seriousness.

I know one distinguished exponent of education as a means of transmit-

⁴ See, for instance, the enlightening discussion of W. Ivor Jennings, "Universities in the Colonies," *Political Quarterly*, XVII (July, 1946), 228-44.

ting scientific habits of thought who has little effect on the majority of his students because his tests and examinations consist of true-and-false statements about the contents of books. Any normally literate student can do well on these tests without re-examining preconceptions or acquiring new skills. I suspect that the reason for my friend's failure to give challenging examinations is that he likes to be considered a "nice guy," and he would hesitate to irritate students, parents, and colleagues by putting unfamiliar hurdles in front of his students. Another teacher at a progressive college is in the habit of making up quizzes over a morning cup of coffee, and explaining to his classes, "Oh, I made these up at the Union this morning." Yet he often berates his students for not preparing their work!

The kind of general education with which we at this conference are concerned distresses typical students. It does not gratify them; it does not please them; it annoys and bothers and upsets and shocks them. Everett Dean Martin said: "A man is known by the dilemmas he keeps."⁵ A good, orthodox high-school product does not want to keep any dilemmas; he wants to get rid of them as speedily as possible—if necessary, by forgetting them. If suspended judgment is the essence of the liberal attitude, he wants none of it.

⁵ Everett Dean Martin, *The Meaning of a Liberal Education*, p. 107. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1926.

Then we professors come along, we who believe that the teacher's objective should be general education, and we try to force dilemmas down the students' throats. We keep calling them to attention. We are, in other words, gadflies. The good, orthodox high-school product will not let us "gadfly" him if he can help it—and he can help it if we persist in setting him examinations which he can pass by memorizing or repeating or guessing.

Therefore, we have to make entirely clear to him that he is going to be evaluated in terms of his ability to *apply* the methods and techniques of thought and analysis about which we are talking. Even when we tell him, he often does not believe us. In fact, he does not understand us, because he has had a lifetime of experience with teachers, and he and his mates have developed techniques and skills and conditioned responses which help him "get by."

He has learned to demand that a teacher's method of examining and marking be predictable to him. Essentially, this demand is exactly the same as that of the labor union which insists that promotions and raises be predictable. Without any doubt, the teacher who gives routine true-false tests has reduced the element of uncertainty in marking and examining. In fact, we may lay down a general principle: The greater the emphasis on what the book says and on what the crude facts are, the fairer the examina-

tion will appear to the student trained in the typical American high school.

Marking for skill can be achieved, however. For example, Rollins College has devised a method of marking which, instead of focusing attention on students' letter marks, probably looks toward the acquisition of skills and which, furthermore, forces the teacher to analyze student achievement in detail.

If teachers would prepare statements of objectives at the beginning of a course, distribute them to students, and report to each student at the end of the term how well he appears to have reached these objectives and mark him accordingly, considerable improvement in student orientation toward class work would take place. To mark the student accordingly, it would be necessary to prepare tests of the objectives. Once I prepared such a test. The chief difficulty was that preparing the test took time because I had to state formally things which I normally would have felt intuitively.

Nevertheless, if we really want students to think for themselves or to learn specific skills, we must make clear to them what it is that they are expected to learn. Otherwise, they will develop considerable resentment at the manifest iniquity of the teacher who tries to force them to think. The teacher who is interested in general education often compromises by offering routine examinations and ex-

horting students in the classroom not to focus on examinations but on real learning. This attitude is sheer self-condemnation. Why can he not make his examinations measures of real learning? In effect, he throws away the strongest weapon in his armory, with the possible exception of the ability to create imaginative interest, if he asks routine questions, answerable by memory or guesswork. This is especially likely to happen to the typical teacher who goes out to a typical institution. Much of the writing about, and discussion of, general education comes from teachers fortunate enough to be at an institution like the University of Chicago or Hobart College, where there is a faculty collectively committed to general education. This situation is not characteristic, however, and if we are concerned with raising the level of education, we also have to think of the teacher who wants to educate but is handicapped and depressed by the indifference of his colleagues and the irritation of his students.

Another danger of an opposite sort is worth noting. The introduction of questions which startle, puzzle, or upset without fair warning will also do harm because it will provoke resentment. Students who are suddenly asked to apply some generalization from, say, sociology to a newspaper story or to their own lives feel that the teacher is violating the unspoken rules of the game.

ACTUAL APPLICATION OF GENERAL EDUCATION

The first time I gave examinations which called for attacking original problems—in a course in the family at Lewis Institute—there was trouble. I had told the class, as I tell all my classes, that I expected them to apply what they learned to situations not covered in the textbooks or in class. They had not really understood or believed me. Why should they? They had spent fifteen years learning to think in terms aptly enshrined in that vicious phrase, "when you drop your books and go out into real life."

My error was in supposing that a simple declaration of objectives would counteract these fifteen years of classroom experience. It did not. Gradually, in later courses, I have developed a rather elaborate method of centering attention on the ability to analyze problems sociologically or administratively or according to whatever skill I am trying to teach.

First, I explain several times, in writing and orally, the nature of the skills which the students are going to acquire. Second, a couple of weeks after the term begins, I distribute copies of examinations that I have given in times past and explain why I asked particular kinds of questions. Third, and most important, I orient a good half of the class discussion around problems requiring the kinds of skills which will be called for on the examination. I prepare for discussion questions which students are supposed

to have thought about before the class period. Fourth, I offer one, and perhaps two, practice examinations, which I assign, read, and mark just as I assign and read examinations for credit. I keep no record of the marks on these examinations, and nobody is required to take them.

Essentially, what I have done is to shift from a technique of teaching which did not prepare students for my examinations to one which does, and in the process I have, I believe, made my classes more valuable. It was unreasonable to expect students to learn to solve problems without having practice in problem-solving.

I had one failure in this attempt. At Bryn Mawr College, students would not carry on discussions because they were afraid of "making fools of themselves." So I lectured. I did, however, require that the students keep notebooks recording the generalizations covered in the lectures and in their readings and showing applications of these generalizations, according to certain directives, to their own experience.

As a result of this technique, during the summer of 1947 I developed at Roosevelt College a system of analytic revision of notes, which I combined with class discussion. The central point in this system is to teach students to recognize and to sift out the pertinent generalizations in discussions and in their reading of illustrative and secondary materials and then to relate these generalizations in dif-

ferent ways (disagreement, modification, exemplification) to (1) their own experiences; (2) other subjects that they are studying; (3) occupational experience or anticipation; and (4) outside reading, particularly in the mass media to which they are likely to be exposed after graduation, such as *Time* and the newspapers. These notes are handed in at different times, according to a schedule, and I sometimes ask students to amplify points, revise, etc.

These notebooks are used as a basis for much, or all, of the final examination. I prepare questions calling for interpretation and analysis by the student on the notebook and on any papers he may have submitted. This method has the advantage of focusing the examination questions on the student's particular interest or concern. If I know that a student is taking a course in ancient history or that she is the daughter of an osteopath or an active member of the Committee on Racial Equality, I can ask pertinent questions. The re-reading and the preparing of appropriate questions for forty students for a semester takes me twelve hours. If I had time enough to experiment and analyze my results and to keep adequate records, I believe I could work out helpful suggestions which would enable teachers of large classes to shorten the process considerably and still preserve most of its values. Here is a line along which definite experimentation in the improvement of teaching is needed.

The chief difficulty with the note-taking system is that a few intelligent and impatient students either refuse to do it or do it grudgingly. At the examination these students may be asked to write on assigned comprehensive essay topics.

It may be worth noting that about a quarter of my students who have hitherto had high marks do poorly with me but that a larger number of students who do not ordinarily do well make exceptionally good records with me.

A variant to using the students' notebooks as the central theme for the final examination is making the preparation of a paper on some topic the core of the course and then asking individual questions on each paper. For instance, I did this in a class in social psychology at Howard University, in which I required from all students a life-history, to be prepared according to specified criteria.

I have invented extremely complex types of objective examinations. In some fields, these objective examinations may be as valuable for students as the kind that I have described above. In such areas as sociology, philosophy, and political theory, it is apparently inevitable that they be tests of recognition or ability to solve puzzles. Consequently, in preparing for them, the students tend to acquire skills of recognition or puzzle-solving. I feel reasonably certain that in my graduate work I suffered because I had, as an undergraduate, learned to

do well on examinations which called for recognition but had never been forced to undertake prolonged analytic or synthetic effort. I suspect that many other students, trained as I was, suffered similarly, not only in graduate work, but in many kinds of businesses or in professional life. However, there are many fields—medieval history, perhaps, and panoramic courses, generally—in which recognition is the central goal.

CONCLUSIONS

In conclusion, then, our examinations should be of the kind in which our students will be more likely to learn to apply knowledge to life than they would be without preparing for the examinations. In offering examinations of this type, we are running counter to the general trend of the school system. Hence, as a matter of policy and of ethics, we should try to

minimize the unhappiness which introducing such examinations will involve. After empirical studies of the sociology of examinations and marking have been made, we can be more precise than I have been here. We may then be able, for example, to tell how frequently examinations should be given and be able to organize examinations which have the optimum value, not only for the students who take them, but for their successors who study them in the files. When such precision has been attained, our examinations will be as superior to those of today as the best examinations of today are to those which fail to take account of Tyler's epoch-making work.⁶

⁶ See Ralph W. Tyler, *Constructing Achievement Tests*. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1934 (out of print); and some of the examinations prepared by the University of Chicago Board of Examinations, for instance, those on Social Sciences II and III, since about 1942.

A NEW APPROACH TO GUIDANCE

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EDUCATION, like politics, has its slogans, catch phrases, and shibboleths. We have not forgotten the eras of the "square deal" and the New Deal, the "full dinner pail" and the "chicken in every pot" in national politics; nor, as educators, can we be unmindful of the sweeping influence of such slogans as "silent reading," "progressive education," the "core curriculum," and the "whole child."

The latest and most euphonious catchword, which seems to have caught the fancy of the public no less than that of certain school officials, is "guidance." "Guidance" acts like a magic word, conveying hope and relief to thousands of helpless parents. It carries a promise of public service to well-intentioned school officials and impresses social workers as a sure panacea for all the ailments of youth. Yet, in spite of the guidance program which has been carried on in schools at all grade levels, and especially in the high schools, for the past quarter of a century, juvenile delinquency is on the increase rather than on the decline, and children continue to leave high school in large numbers.

Guidance held out the greatest and most far-reaching promise to American education when it was first in-

augurated in a number of pioneering high schools about twenty-five years ago. In recent years it has gained more impetus as a result of the development and the refinement of intelligence and aptitude tests in the fields of learning and skills. Even the objectives of guidance have changed as its field of application was studied more carefully and new possibilities were discovered.

EVOLUTION OF GUIDANCE

Twenty-five years ago, when guidance was first introduced in the high schools, it was confined to the exploration of the vocational tastes and leanings of pupils and was, therefore, properly called "vocational guidance." It was somewhat later that administrators and guidance instructors began to discover broader possibilities. Why limit guidance to vocations only? Why not apply it to the educational pursuits of the pupils? Many of the youngsters were floundering around in a maze of studies, with little or no knowledge of the contents, difficulties, and objectives of the subjects.

The late 1920's were prosperous years. Children were not needed at home to help with the family finances. They were sent to high school in

droves, and thither they flocked by the hundreds of thousands. It was, indeed, a time for educational guidance. Just about this time group guidance or orientation courses were incorporated in the high-school curriculum, and educational guidance was added to vocational guidance.

BROADER CONCEPTION OF GUIDANCE NEEDED

However, the time has now arrived when the guidance counselor cannot stop with mere educational direction. He must go beyond that goal. His objective must become personal or human guidance or, to be thoroughly modern, guidance of the "whole child." He finds it difficult, if not impossible, however, to take this next step because of the narrow scope of guidance in which he has been schooled in extension courses and in current literature. The concept of guidance that he has thus acquired is a limited one for our modern world. It assumes that there are no atypical behavior cases in the urban high school; no wayward orphans; no children coming from broken homes (nearly 18 per cent¹ do); none who spend their

time in poolrooms or bowling alleys; none who commit petty offenses against the civil and moral codes; none who occasionally steal, break into garages, loiter on street corners or in drug stores; none who play the slot machines, smoke in secrecy in their early teens and to excess in their later teens.

A certain number of pupils in the typical urban high school are on the fringe of becoming social problems. Moreover, it is during their high-school years that children who lack parental control begin to sharpen their wits and develop the cunning which will lead them into antisocial paths. They will not stay in high school long enough to graduate, to be sure. They will leave as soon as they are old enough to withdraw under the state attendance law, generally at the end of the first or second year. Nonetheless, they are the responsibility of the high school. From a social point of view they are its greatest responsibility. What is the high school doing for them?

According to the theorist, if the guidance counselor handles the boy who is a "behavior problem," the other pupils will avoid him rather than seek contact with him. On the other hand, if

¹ An examination was made of the home conditions of 1,005 pupils from Bulkeley High School. The sampling was taken at random and included pupils of both sexes and from all four school classes. The results showed that 177 of the pupils, or 17.6 per cent, lived with only one of their natural parents. In 95 per cent of the cases, the child lived with his mother alone or with his mother and stepfather. In the remaining 5 per cent of the cases, he lived either with his grandparents or with an aunt. Bulkeley, which has an enrolment ranging between 1,500 and 1,600

pupils, with nearly all of them white, may well be taken as a cross-section of the typical urban high school. The parents are, for the most part, skilled mechanics, policemen, firemen, motor-men, and proprietors of small business establishments. It is safe to assume, therefore, that the above figure is representative of the number of high-school pupils who come from broken homes.

the guidance counselor does not search out these unfortunates—the very ones who need assistance—and try to help them discover their needs and ascertain their potentialities, who will? Surely not the principal; he has no time for this sort of work. Certainly not the “discipline officer”; his attention would drive them from school. Are these children, many of whom come to high school with spirits already broken, minds warped, values distorted, and characters malformed, to be thrust aside, ignored, and forgotten because, if the guidance counselor tries to reshape them, the normal pupils will not seek contact with him? That point of view is uncharitable, to say the least.

The high-school pupil of today, especially if he is urban born and reared, is beset with so many problems that for him the question is no longer merely one of preparation either for a job or for college; for him the problem is adjustment to a set of situations which are kaleidoscopic in nature and baffling to the young mind.

The traditional rebellion of the child against the book or, more accurately, against the schoolmaster is not difficult to overcome when the youngster is still in his early teens. In his case self-restraint and discipline can be taught with the aid of the proverbial bedroom slipper. Few parents can claim that they “cannot do anything” with their offspring when the children are still under fourteen years of age. It is a different matter, however, in the case of the adolescent. A

new multitude of psychophysical promptings, impulses, and experiences bursts into existence in the later teens, and youth tends to be driven by them in all sorts of directions, many of which are in conflict with the social order and especially with the school and its obligations. “Rebellious youth” is not an empty term.

In high school the adolescent is thrust into a well-organized society, in which he is immersed the better part of the day. He no longer stays with the same teacher all day long as he did in the elementary school. He has five or six teachers each day and becomes a member of as many social units. He must learn discipline and self-direction and make many delicate adjustments to various teachers, pupils, and situations, day in, day out, week after week. There is little opportunity for the high-school youth to dwell with his own yearnings, with his own imaginings—in short, with his own dreams. He must learn to inhibit and to subdue his dreams in order that he may be mentally alert to what is going on in the classroom or auditorium. In other words, self-discipline and objectivity become the keystone in his adjustment at a time when every fiber in his body and every cell in his brain call for self-abandonment and subjectivity. What kind of guidance does the high-school youth need at that time of life?

THE NEW GUIDANCE

The guidance teacher wants to pursue the traditional role of friend and

counselor to his charges. He would like to sit back, relaxed and at ease, and talk with boys about their hobbies, their outside activities, and their future plans. He would like to look up college catalogues with them, recommend changes in curriculums, console them if they have difficulties at home, help them plan in making preparation for employment, acquaint them with the rules and regulations of the school, and assist them in orienting themselves with respect to their school and extra-curriculum activities. He would like to encourage them to be thrifty and to help them in developing and maintaining an honorable code of ethics towards both the individual and society.

All these goals are worthy and desirable for the guidance teacher, but this kind of counseling neglects the very pupil who is most in need of guidance and friendly advice—the pupil who constantly gets into trouble in high school, who plays truant, cuts classes, smokes in the school building, is insolent to his teachers, cheats on tests, loses his temper, swears in the classroom, loses his books, destroys school property—who, in short, is a troublemaker and a demoralizing influence in the classroom and corridors. There are some guidance instructors who say that these types of pupils do not come within their sphere of activity. These pupils, they say, present disciplinary problems and, therefore, should be handled by the principal or vice-principal.

Guidance teachers who entertain the point of view that behavior problems should be handled by a "discipline officer" and that counselors should at all times be considered a friend to whom all pupils may, without fear or hesitation, come to confide their troubles and even to ask for intercession with the administration in matters involving serious wrongdoing are losing a golden opportunity to be of real service to youth and to save hundreds of youngsters from becoming delinquents.

The viewpoint that discipline belongs to the principal is the survival of the old notion that the main function of the head of the school is to act as a sort of glorified policeman, prosecutor, judge, and executioner, all in one. This may have been the proper function of the high-school principal a half-century ago or more, when the enrolment was composed, for the most part, of raw and spoiled youth of the male sex. Today, however, teachers, administrators, school superintendents, and school boards should realize that the high-school principal is, indeed, and should be, the head of all guidance and that what applies to the guidance teacher with respect to winning the confidence of pupils should apply with still greater force to the head of the school or his assistant. The principal is the court of last resort. The pupil who feels himself ill-treated or misjudged by his teachers or other persons in the school should feel free to come to the principal as a friend for help, advice, and redress.

What, then, is the solution? The solution is to take the only logical and sane position, namely, that the modern high school is no place for discipline in the traditional sense of the word and that this meaning of discipline might well be eliminated from the educational vocabulary altogether.

Discipline from without has to be maintained where human beings are to be molded into a uniform frame of thought, feeling, and action. Hitler disciplined the German people in this manner, and similar discipline is maintained in prisons because the punishment meted out there is deprivation of freedom. Discipline implies fear, punishment, threats. Why should they be held over youth at a time when, and in a place where, he is supposed to be developing into a well-rounded personality, qualified to take his place in a free society and to carry on the trades of a free economic system and the principles of a dynamic democracy?

What, for instance, does the high school truant need—punishment or guidance? Should he be summarily deprived of membership in clubs, penalized by detention after school hours, and removed from athletic teams, or should the guidance teacher sit down with him and try to find the cause of his truancy and the means by which it may be avoided in the future? Attending school regularly is just as much a form of learning as is acquiring a reading knowledge of French or a working knowledge of algebra. All psychological experiments tell us that reward is

a far better agency in the promotion of learning than punishment, and, although it would be foolish to use reward as a cure for truancy, there are better ways of curing it than punishment. Punishment really serves to increase the pupil's dislike for school and, therefore, either to increase his truancy or to drive him from school altogether.

There may be a dozen reasons for truancy, especially in the case of the high-school youth. It may be that the pupil overslept and was ashamed to come late to school and, therefore, thought it best to stay out altogether. This situation might lead to his giving a false reason for his absence, or to forging an excuse, or even to inducing another pupil to stay away with him. He may have been out late the night before and not prepared his school assignments, and consequently was afraid to face his teachers. He may have received a severe scolding from his parents on the night before or as he was leaving the house for school and, therefore, felt too broken in spirit to go to school. In short, any one of many reasons may have accounted for his truancy, which, if it were known and understood, would increase the school official's sympathy for the offending youth instead of leading to blind punishment.

What about the pupil who is insolent to his teachers, or swears in the classroom, or mars property, or cheats on tests? Should such an individual be given a tongue-lashing, detained after school, and told that his misdeed will

go down on the office records, and the matter then be dropped? Should there not be an opportunity for the guidance teacher to act as a psychoanalyst, probing the reasons for the offender's actions, trying to redirect him into a better type of behavior?

Then there is the typical case of the boy who is caught smoking in the school building. The guidance teacher, under the traditional point of view, does not want to have anything to do with him. The customary penalty for such an offense, traditionally imposed by the principal, is suspension from school, for a day or two or for a week, and an interview with the parents before the offender is allowed to return to school. Is there no other way to cure smoking in the school building? Will this procedure help to build up the pupil's attachment for the school? Will it make it easier for him to co-operate with his teachers? Will it increase his fondness for his lessons and schoolbooks?

A far better way to treat a case of this kind is for the guidance teacher to have a heart-to-heart talk with the pupil who was caught smoking in the building and to point out to him (1) the bad effects of smoking from a physiological point of view, (2) the desirability of not smoking while school is in session from the point of view of developing strength of character, (3) the tragedy of setting a bad example for others, and (4) the fire hazard involved in smoking in dressing-rooms, etc. He might be told that doctors and dentists, many of whom

are inveterate smokers, have to refrain from smoking during office hours, that bank tellers do not smoke while on duty, that judges do not smoke while on the bench, nor lawyers, while they are trying cases. This and similar methods of approach give the guidance counselor an excellent opportunity to bring about real character development and orientation toward the problems of life, such as the pupil is not likely to receive either in his classroom, from his associates, or at home.

Let us see how this philosophy of guidance works out in actual practice.

HOW THE NEW GUIDANCE WORKS

At the school with which the writer is connected, guidance for the whole pupil, as well as for every pupil, has been the keyword practically since the doors were opened in 1926. The rule of reason was set up as the guiding principle in all dealings between pupils and teachers. As the guidance program is now organized for this school of sixteen hundred pupils enrolled in Grades IX through XII, there are three full-time and two part-time counselors. One of the full-time persons is a woman, the vice-principal. The pupils are distributed among the counselors by classes and are assigned so that the male counselors have charge of the boys and the women of the girls. The basis of distribution among the counselors assures that each counselor will have approximately one hundred minutes for individual guidance with each

pupil under his care during the active school year of thirty-five weeks.²

Pupils who break the school rules by such acts as smoking on the premises, disturbing a class, or showing disrespect are penalized by the teacher, who gives the offender one, two, or three demerits, depending on the seriousness of the offense, and hands in a written report on the matter. When the offense is serious, calling for three demerits or a "cipher," as it is called, a report is made out in duplicate. One copy is for the office files. The other, called the "anecdotal report," goes to the proper guidance counselor who, at his convenience, interviews the offending pupil. We have found, however, that it is not advisable to delay the conference too long, for, if the delay is too long, the pupil may forget his offense and, when he is reminded of it, he may think that a black record is being built up against him and acquire a persecution complex. The best time for a behavior interview to take place is within two to three days after the offense occurred.

During the conference an orientation talk is given, and an appeal to reason and an attempt to bring about adjustment are made. The conference may last from ten to twenty minutes, depending on how long it takes to make a particular pupil "see the

light." Certain individuals are chronic wrongdoers. They will smoke in the building one day, cut class the next, and perhaps be truant or tardy the third, although it may be that a week or two will intervene between each offense. In this type of case the counselor will see the offender several times during the year. If necessary, he will send for the pupil's parents. He will confer with the pupil's teachers. He may recommend a change of teachers or subjects. He will inquire into the home conditions. He will confer with the social agency or the juvenile court. He will consult with the principal about cases which are hard to "crack," and those cases which do not yield to the counselor's efforts will be turned over to the principal for final adjustment.

A few gleanings from the counselor's daily record will illustrate the procedure.

CASE I

Robert.—Ninth-grade pupil; low mentality; repeater; indolent; chronic truant. Interviewed by the guidance counselor for marring furniture. The counselor gave the following report of the conference with him:

I asked Robert if he ever wrote his name on the furniture at home. He said he never had. I asked him why he marred his school desk when at home his mother had trained him to take care of the furniture. He said that other pupils marked on school property, and so he saw no wrong in it. I pointed out to him that the wrongdoing of others is no excuse for us when we follow in their footsteps. I discussed with him the appearance of furniture that has been mutilated by careless users. He agreed that he preferred to see things look well kept. We talked about the use of the scout hatchet, the protection

²The method of determining the number of free periods a teacher should be given for counseling is to multiply the number of pupils the principal wishes to assign the teacher by 100 and divide by the product of the length of the school year in terms of active weeks and the length of the recitation period in terms of minutes.

of trees along the trail. He said he had often seen people carve their initials on trees or hack them with a hatchet. He agreed that it was unsightly and spoiled the natural appearance of the wood. He also agreed that it was his responsibility to pay for the sanding and refinishing of the desk he marred.

CASE II

John.—Freshman of good intelligence; I.Q. 111; good scholarship; perfect attendance record; poor conduct. Reported to the guidance counselor for persistent talking, disturbing the room, and taking more of the teacher's time "than the rest of the class put together." The counselor's report on the conference reads as follows:

I talked with John about the atmosphere in his English room. He agreed that it was a very friendly and pleasant class in which to be. He admitted, however, that his weakness consists in taking advantage of the teacher whenever she gives him a little freedom. He doesn't know when to stop. We discussed the amount of time the teacher can give to each pupil in a forty-two-minute period, and he really saw that, when the teacher had to speak to him on two occasions, about two minutes of the class time were wasted. I pointed out to him that this represented a total of almost one man-hour for the class. For some time I have noticed that John never looks you in the eyes when you talk with him. Instead, he always looks at the floor. I took time today to talk with him about looking the world squarely in the face. I tried to do it in a roundabout way, first telling him about a fine Eagle Scout who used to have the same habit before I talked with him about it. I tried to help John understand that he had nothing to be ashamed of and that he should try "to look everyone in the face."

CASE III

Salvatore.—Tenth-grade pupil; normal intelligence; I.Q. 107; frequently absent; be-

havior problem; poor scholarship. Interviewed by the guidance counselor for failure to report after school for make-up work. The counselor's report on the conference reads as follows:

Salvatore agreed that the teacher asked him to return not for punishment but to give him extra help, which, he admitted, he really needs. He spoke very well of his teacher, and I doubt very much if he really intended to go home without first seeing her. It probably slipped his mind. Although Salvatore reported to me for failure to keep an appointment with his French teacher, he had with him a note from his English instructor also, saying that he was too talkative in the class and always had the last word. I talked with him regarding his home training in this respect and learned he has a stepfather and that in the home he is not permitted to express himself freely either in word or action. Until he was ten years of age he lived on a farm, where he enjoyed freedom. After moving to the city, he felt that freedom lost. This may account for the conduct he manifests here at school. We discussed the wisdom of exercising self-control at school and at home.

One of the full-time guidance counselors has 340 boys under his care. He interviews an average of three behavior cases a day and spends an average of fifteen minutes with each, or forty-five minutes (one period) a day. His follow-up work on truants and his interviews with them may take another forty-five minutes. Thus, out of the twenty-five periods a week at his disposal for guidance conferences, ten periods are devoted to atypical cases—boys who require immediate adjustment to the life-problems which confront them. Of the 340 boys under his charge, perhaps thirty or forty will re-

quire such conferences, some of the boys, several times throughout the year. Who shall say that the time and energy devoted to this small number of maladjusted pupils is not as well spent as the time and energy spent on the much larger number of normal individuals who come from established homes and who, for the most part, are capable of self-direction? If not more than one lad is saved from becoming a delinquent, if not more than one becomes well enough adjusted so that he stays in high school long enough to graduate, this kind of guidance more than justifies itself.

That counseling of this type bears good fruit is proved by the strong holding-power of Bulkeley High School. Between 65 and 73 per cent of the pupils who enter are graduated four years later, a sharp contrast to

the 50 per cent average for the nation as a whole.³

It is time that the guidance program in the American high schools took the next and only proper step and began to provide guidance, not only for the anointed, but for those pupils who really need it—the pupils who run afoul of rules and regulations. It is not discipline that these young people need but wise and sympathetic counseling, and the sooner the school authorities realize that discipline is not guidance, the sooner will the word “discipline” disappear from use and “guidance” take its place in the high-school setup. Only then shall we have guidance for the whole child as well as for every child.

³ *Statistics of Public High Schools, 1937-38*, p. 14. *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States*, chap. v. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 2, 1940.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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DURING the past year there was a marked increase in the number of references on the administration of secondary education. Some shifts in emphasis are also evident. (1) More attention is given to democratic techniques and to the means of broadening the base of administration to include staff, pupils, and community. (2) The subject of acceleration is no longer a major topic. (3) The interest in veterans' education continues but with an emphasis on the evaluation of present programs. (4) With war restrictions on building at least partially removed, there is greater concern with rebuilding and new construction. Moreover, because of the nature of the materials on the subject of staff responsibilities, the sources appearing under this heading have been reclassified so as to separate those items dealing with the responsibilities of administrators as contrasted with the responsibilities of other faculty members. A section has been added on student participation in administration.

GENERAL

611. DIAMOND, THOMAS. "The Use of Smith-Hughes Funds in Secondary Schools," *University of Michigan School*

of Education Bulletin, XVII (March, 1946), 81-85.

Makes recommendations relative to the Smith-Hughes funds in secondary schools.

612. HARDESTY, R. BOWEN. "Working with an Evolving Junior High-School Program in a Local Unit," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 88-95.

Describes the core program in Harford County, Maryland, and emphasizes administrative aspects of the program.

613. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Developing and Administering the Curriculum and Pupil Services," *Changing Conceptions in Educational Administration*, pp. 20-52. Forty-fifth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: Distributed by the University of Chicago Press, 1946.

Proposes administrative policies relating to the school program and suggests changes in administrative practice made necessary by current trends in curriculum development.

614. SPAULDING, FRANCIS T. "Guidance and School Administration," *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women*, X (January, 1947), 51-56.

Points out administrative aspects in the secondary schools which help to promote an effective guidance program.

615. WEERSING, FREDERICK J. "Organization and Administration of the Curricu-

ulum," *The High School Curriculum*, pp. 377-98. Edited by HARL R. DOUGLASS. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947.

Discusses implications of the changing concepts of the curriculum for school organization and administration.

EDUCATION OF VETERANS

616. "Accreditation Policies for Peacetime Military Service," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (December, 1946), 6-8.

Recommendations of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences in regard to granting credit for educational achievement by men in peacetime military service.

617. AVERILL, LAWRENCE A. "Application of the Tutorial System to the Problem of Educating Veterans in Regional High Schools," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXII (October, 1946), 401-11.

Appraises the tutorial method for veterans' classes in Massachusetts and concludes that this method is not adequate.

618. BRUMBAUGH, A. J. "Accreditation of Military Experience," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (January, 1947), 297-303.

Outlines present practices in accreditation of military experiences and charts the task of the Commission on Accreditation of Service Experiences of the American Council on Education.

619. EVANS, WILLIAM A. "The Indianapolis Public Schools Give Service to Veterans," *American School Board Journal*, CXIII (October, 1946), 39-41.

A survey of the program for veterans in the Indianapolis, Indiana, high schools.

620. *Final Report on the Second National Conference on Veterans Education*. Washington: Department of Adult Ed-

ucation, National Education Association, 1947. Pp. iv+86.

Report of the conference sponsored by the Veterans' Education Council in Detroit, Michigan, in January, 1947. Includes a description of the conference process.

621. HOWARD, JOHN A., JR., and ENYEART, BUEL F. "Credits for Veterans' Experiences," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXI (October, 1946), 280-83.

Summarizes practices in California in granting credit for military experiences and offers suggestions for improvements.

622. WILSON, RAYMOND G. "Summer School for Veterans," *Clearing House*, XXI (April, 1947), 474-75.

Reports the plan in Mobile, Alabama, whereby veterans are able to carry extra work during summer school in order to be ready for college a half-year ahead of expectations.

PUPIL PERSONNEL

623. BENT, RUDYARD K. "Scholastic Records of Non-High School Graduates Entering the University of Arkansas," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (October, 1946), 108-15.

Explains a study of the scholastic achievement of students at the University of Arkansas who had not graduated from high school.

624. COREY, STEPHEN M. (chairman). "The Discovery of Outstanding Talent in Youth," *Teachers College Record*, XLVIII (January, 1947), 260-68.

A committee report of the Conference on the Education of Youth in America, held at Teachers College, Columbia University, November, 1946. Establishes general principles concerning the discovery of talent in American youth and makes recommendations for a national program.

625. DOSIK, ALBERT. "The CRMD Goes to High School," *High Points in the Work*

of the High Schools of New York City, XXVIII (October, 1946), 34-39.

A summary of procedures followed by one high school in New York City in its attempt to solve the problems which arise in adjusting subnormal children (children of retarded mental development) to attendance at a vocational high school.

626. HAMMOCK, ROBERT C., and BAKER, T. P. "How about the Junior High School?" *Educational Leadership*, IV (March, 1947), 396-402.

Discusses the problem of grouping and sets up criteria for establishing an adequate plan on the junior high school level.

627. NORD, GERALD E. "Class Sectioning: Facts on a Junior High Quandary," *Clearing House*, XXI (May, 1947), 529-32.

Considers the problem of grouping in the author's school and reviews practices in ten other Pennsylvania junior high schools.

ACCELERATION²

628. BROWN, HENRY A. *The Accelerated Program in University High School, University of Wyoming*. School Service Bureau Bulletin, Vol. V, No. 3, Laramie, Wyoming: College of Education, University of Wyoming, 1946. Pp. 16.

Describes a program designed to enable pupils, veterans and nonveterans, of subcollegiate rank to accelerate their high-school training.

DISCIPLINE

629. BECKER, ELSA G. "The Co-ordination of Guidance and Discipline," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (March, 1947), 31-35.

Recommends ways in which the work of the guidance and disciplinary officers can be co-ordinated.

² See also Item 691 (Wessell) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1946, number of the *School Review*.

630. DUFF, JOHN CARR. "Detention Room: A Catch-all for the Sinful," *Clearing House*, XXI (April, 1947), 61-64.

Appraises the function of detention rooms in solving disciplinary problems.

631. MILOR, JOHN H. "Discipline: A Principal Explains to the Pupils," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 423-25.

An assembly talk given by a principal to the student body of a junior high school. Emphasizes the problems involved in a democratic concept of discipline.

632. OHLSEN, MERLE M. "Guidance and School Discipline," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (February, 1947), 108-112.

Discusses the relations between guidance and disciplinary functions in the school.

ATTENDANCE²

633. BERGER, MAX. "Licking the Absentee Problem," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (December, 1946), 20-22.

Examines the methods which the Manhattan High School of Aviation Trades found successful in combating absenteeism.

634. TOWNSEND, FLORENCE D. "Basic Factors Underlying Good Attendance," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (May, 1947), 46-51.

Discusses three general plans followed in New York City and sets up guides in the development of attendance procedures.

635. WRIGHT, GRACE S. "High School Attendance and Family Income," *School Life*, XXIX (June, 1947), 7-10.

Reports studies examining the economic factors which force high-school students to leave school before graduation.

² See also Item 489 (Fornwalt) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1947, number of the *School Review* and Item 208 (Wolfson) in the May, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

636. WRIGHT, J. C., and JONES, GALEN. "A Life Adjustment Program," *School Life*, XXIX (March, 1947), 16-21.

Excerpts from reports of co-operative studies dealing with "A Life Adjustment Program for the Major Group of Youth of Secondary School Age Not Appropriately Served by Preparation for College or for a Specific Vocation."

EVALUATION, MARKS, AND RECORDS³

637. ARCHITZEL, ALBERT. "Here Is the DeKalb Plan," *Progressive Education*, XXIV (November, 1946), 60-62.

Reviews the plan for determining student progress developed by the faculty of the DeKalb Junction High School, DeKalb Junction, New York.

638. BELANGER, LAURENCE L. "Testing in California Secondary Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (February, 1947), 108-11.

Presents data on a survey of the purposes, practices, and problems of testing in California high schools.

639. BRISTOW, WILLIAM H. "Evaluating and Recording Pupil Development," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 38-43.

Explains the cumulative personnel record form developed and published by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

640. DRAKE, RICHARD M. "What about State Testing Programs?" *Progressive Education*, XXIV (October, 1946), 26-27, 38.

Analyzes arguments pro and con in regard to the use of state examinations in secondary schools and offers suggestions relative to their continued use.

641. HOFF, ARTHUR G. "The Effect of the Study of High School Chemistry upon

Success in College Chemistry," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (March, 1947), 539-42.

Compares the achievement of a group of college students who had studied chemistry in high school with the success of another group which had not studied chemistry in high school.

642. "Parents and Teachers Revise the Report Card," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), 50-56, 58. Summarizes the findings of a questionnaire sent to parents and teachers in Portland, Oregon, as part of a study of procedures and forms used in reporting student progress.

643. "School Record Forms of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), 39-49.

Reproduces pupil personnel record forms that are available from the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

644. WEEKS, I. D. "An Evaluation of the High-School Graduate," *School and Society*, LXV (June 14, 1947), 441-42.

Gives the opinions of a group of college educators regarding desirable qualities and weaknesses which they observed in high-school graduates.

CLASS SCHEDULES⁴

645. LEVINE, I. BERT. "Programming a City High School," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIX (May, 1947), 16-37.

Establishes six basic principles in scheduling classes and describes programming procedures developed at Abraham Lincoln High School, New York City.

³ See also Item 42 (Hellerstein) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1947, number of the *School Review*.

⁴ See also Item 55 (Woellner and Wood) in the list of selected references appearing in the February, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal* and Item 398 (Melby) in the September, 1947, number of the same journal.

ADMINISTRATORS' RESPONSIBILITIES, REQUIREMENTS, AND SALARIES

646. BIRD, C. L. "Vital Environment for Learning," *Educational Leadership*, IV (February, 1947), 333-36.

Sets forth the function of the administrator in planning programs of curriculum improvement.

647. "Duties and Responsibilities of High-School Principals and Assistant Principals," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (December, 1946), 9-12.

Lists specific duties for which high-school principals and assistant principals are responsible in the St. Paul, Minnesota, public schools, as defined by a committee from the schools.

648. HERRICK, VIRGIL E. "The Principal Looks at Himself," *Educational Leadership*, IV (April, 1947), 442-48.

Presents a point of view regarding the leadership function of the school principal.

649. KATTERLE, ZENO B. "Making the Principalship a Year-Round Job," *American School Board Journal*, CXIV (May, 1947), 25-26.

An account of a plan in Portland, Oregon, which provides year-round employment for school principals.

650. KEESLER, DON C. "The Development of a Principal 'Self-Appraisal' Program," *American School Board Journal*, CXIII (September, 1946), 48, 78.

Describes a self-evaluation form to be used by principals in evaluating the effectiveness of their administration.

651. KELLY, EARL C. "The Function of the Principal in a Modern School," *American School Board Journal*, CXIV (June, 1947), 27-28, 77.

Summarizes some of the functions which a principal might perform to help improve the quality of living within the school.

652. LARSON, WILLIAM S. "Mutual Administrative Problems of the Principal and

the Music Supervisor," *Education*, LXVII (November, 1946), 143-48.

Discusses problems which confront the principal and music supervisor in organizing an effective program of music education.

653. LOCKARD, GENE K. *A Comparative Study of the College Preparation, Teaching Combinations, and Salaries of Kansas High School Administrators and Teachers* (1946). Studies in Education No. 31. Kansas State Teachers College of Emporia Bulletin of Information, Vol. XXVI, No. 11. Emporia, Kansas: Kansas State Teachers College, 1946. Pp. 6-38.

Presents an overview of the college training, teaching combinations, and salaries of Kansas high-school teachers and administrators.

FACULTY RESPONSIBILITIES AND REQUIREMENTS

654. AXLEV, LOWRY. "Head of Dept.—A Race Horse with Plow-Horse Duties," *Clearing House*, XXI (January, 1947), 274-76.

Reports a survey which investigated the duties of department heads in fifty junior and senior high schools.

655. BOLMEIER, E. C. "Teacher Participation in Appraising and Developing the School Program," *School Review*, LIV (September, 1946), 416-19.

Describes an administrative plan in the high schools of Jackson, Mississippi, which encourages teacher participation in development of the school program.

656. EISNER, HARRY. "The Activities of a First Assistant," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (October, 1946), 17-33.

Gives results of a study which sought to clarify the function of the first assistant in the secondary schools of New York City.

657. KRINER, HARRY L. "Extra Compensation for Teachers Who Direct Student

Activities," *American School Board Journal*, CXIII (October, 1946), 33-34.

Summarizes a plan which was worked out in the public schools of Altoona, Pennsylvania, for reimbursing teachers who direct extra-curriculum activities.

658. QUINLAN, FREDERICK F. "Faculty Meetings during School Hours," *American School Board Journal*, CXIII (July, 1946), 46.

Describes the plan in Lake Forest, Illinois, which provides for faculty meetings during school hours and encourages teacher participation in the planning of these meetings.

659. REYNOLDS, JAMES W. "The Preparation Needed for Faculty Members in Junior Colleges," *Problems of Faculty Personnel*, pp. 34-46. Edited by JOHN DALE RUSSELL. Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, Vol. XVIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946.

Examines five functions of the junior college and considers the implications of these functions for the preparation of junior-college teachers.

660. ROMINE, STEPHEN. "Improving Teaching Combinations and Assignments in Secondary Schools," *School Review*, LIV (November, 1946), 537-44.

Reports a study of teaching combinations in Colorado's public schools and makes suggestions for improvements in teaching assignments.

661. SCOTT, ELIZABETH, and HARDIN, MAURINE S. "What Does a School Librarian Do?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (February, 1947), 70-76.

A discussion of the responsibilities and services provided by school librarians, with an indication of their problems.

662. SRYGLEY, T. Q. "Implementing the High-School Program through Co-op-

erative Planning," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), 10-14, 86.

Outlines an administrative plan which features teacher participation.

STUDENT PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATION

663. BOLMEIER, E. C. "Six Steps to Pupil Participation in Democratic School Control," *Clearing House*, XXI (March, 1947), 391-95.

Points out six factors essential to successful student participation in planning and administering school activities.

664. HANNELLY, ROBERT J. "Student Participation in Government," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), 84-86.

Describes the functions of a student council in Phoenix Junior College, Phoenix, Arizona.

665. KONOLD, A. EWING. "Student Help in School Improvement," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (February, 1947), 100-102.

Emphasizes the necessity for encouraging students to bring their problems to the principal and shows how student questionnaires can be used for this purpose.

666. KURTZ, JOHN J. "High School Service Activities," *School Activities*, XVIII (April, 1947), 239-40.

Suggests service activities appropriate for high-school students.

STANDARDS AND ACCREDITATION

667. COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD. A. L. COMSTOCK NOTESTEIN (editor). *Annual Handbook, 1947: Terms of Admission to the Colleges of the College Entrance Examination Board*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1947. Pp. 222.

Discusses present policies and services of the board and gives condensed statements of the requirements of fifty-five well-known colleges and suggestions for meeting them.

668. FINE, BENJAMIN. *Admission to American Colleges*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. viii+225.

Presents results of a survey of more than 450 colleges and universities to determine current admission practices.

669. FRANZÉN, CARL G. F. "The Proposed Revision of the Regulations and Criteria of the Commission on Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (April, 1947), 414-39.

The report of a special revision committee of the North Central Association and an analysis of responses made by principals who were asked to comment on the proposed changes.

670. GARRETSON, O. K. "Statistical Summary of Annual Reports from Secondary Schools, 1945-46," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXI (January, 1947), 325-81.

A summary of the 1945-46 reports from secondary schools, with an interpretation of important sections of the reports.

671. "Revision of Accrediting Standards," *School Life*, XXIX (February, 1947), 27-28.

Revised standards for secondary schools, as adopted by the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in November, 1946.

672. SEGEL, DAVID. *High School Credit and Diplomas through Examinations and*

Out-of-School Experiences. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 7, 1946. Pp. vi+46.

A state-by-state summary of the regulations and recommendations of the state departments of education relative to the granting of high-school credit through examinations and out-of-school experiences.

LIBRARY AND STUDY HALL

673. BROOKS, GLADYS. "The High School Library," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (October, 1946), 87-91.

An account of the high-school library in Winfield, Kansas, with reasons for its popularity with the students.

674. OXLEY, MRS. CHESTER JAY. "Good Libraries Aid Good Schools," *Journal of Education*, CXXX (May, 1947), 156-58.

Proposes methods for bringing the school library up to date.

675. PINE, WILLIAM. "The Library and the Study Hall," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XXI (October, 1946), 153, 155.

Procedures for organizing the library facilities when the library must be used as a study hall.

676. PINE, WILLIAM. "Principal versus Librarian," *Clearing House*, XXI (January, 1947), 292-94.

Tells how one librarian secured the cooperation of his principal in increasing the effectiveness of the library services.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

JESSE B. SEARS, *Public School Administration*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947. Pp. xii+434. \$4.50.

Although it is by no means an undeveloped field of study, the area of school administration is one which has undergone such significant changes in relatively recent years that there is likely to be a shortage of adequate reference materials in terms of the recognized needs. The full impact of the democratic philosophy on the technical theories of administration, the evolution of the term "educational statesmanship" as applied to the responsibilities of the practicing administrator, the growing recognition of some of the implications of the child-study movement and of social psychology for administrative theory, and, in general, the increasing tendency of school men to question the purposes rather than the procedures of administration—these are among the factors which have created new textbook needs in this important area. It is a tribute to his leadership in the field that so useful and challenging a contribution as Dr. Sears has produced in this new book has been written by one who, during his long service to the profession, has witnessed most of the changes he discusses.

A justifiable criticism of many overview textbooks is that the material is often too general to be of permanent reference value to advanced students and workers in the field. Paradoxically, a parallel criticism is that broad, integrated concepts are frequently sacrificed for a mass of mechanical details and descriptions of procedure. Sears attempts to avoid these weaknesses by emphasizing the underlying purposes of admin-

istration, on the one hand, and by providing clues to sources of procedural information on the other. The result, in general, is an effective reference work which should be as helpful to the veteran superintendent as it will surely be to students in their first courses in the administration of education.

The reader will identify three unique features of this book which are particularly useful. One feature is the chapter in which the author describes the organization, purposes, and activities of the major professional associations in which administrators have a direct interest. In connection with this chapter, most of the professional and scientific serial publications that are largely devoted to administration are briefly described. The second feature is the inclusion of background material from the areas of history, philosophy, sociology, and psychology. The third, and most significant, feature is the emphasis on reference material throughout the book. It is probable that the topical bibliographies which are included in each chapter represent, in the aggregate, one of the most complete and selective bibliographies on administration available in a single volume. The book's remarkable coverage of both old and new materials makes it an almost indispensable volume for the general student of administration.

Sears has apparently attempted to organize his chapter material in such a way that the instructor can adapt the content to classes of varying experience and purposes. The first part of the book consists of four chapters that are essentially intended to introduce the reader to the field and to the tools of research with which he will require

competence. The second part contains eleven chapters which cover the literature of public-school administration, including federal, state, county, and local problems. Two chapters that are particularly excellent for their enlightened point of view are chapter xi, on personnel management, and the following chapter on supervision and research. There are also discussions of school business management, school buildings, and finance.

The book includes both an author index and a subject index. However, because of the emphasis on reference material throughout the book, a somewhat larger index might have been appropriate. The absence of illustrative or pictorial material is to be noted but not necessarily deplored. The merits of the book are immediately obvious, and it should become a popular and well-appreciated volume.

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CLIFFORD E. ERICKSON and GLENN E. SMITH, *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1947. Pp. xii+276. \$3.00.

For the past thirty years an increasing amount of attention has been given to guidance and personnel work in the secondary schools. This emphasis represents one of the developments incident to the shift from subject matter to pupil activity. As a result, a voluminous literature on guidance has been produced, personnel offices have been added to school staffs, and budget provisions have been made for guidance services in school systems and in individual secondary schools. Teachers have been encouraged to study children, to know their home and community backgrounds, and to deal with them as individuals in terms of their capacities and interests. To know the pupil has become sound pedagogy. The development of the student-personnel point of view is highly desirable. However, when this great body of

literature on guidance is surveyed, the discovery is made that the general aspects of guidance have been emphasized, while the problem of organizing and administering the program has been somewhat neglected. In many cases the school has, no doubt, failed to make the contribution expected because of lack of knowledge of methods in organizing and administering an effective program of pupil guidance. Erickson and Smith's *Organization and Administration of Guidance Services* gives evidence that this breach in the literature on guidance has been recognized and makes a distinct contribution toward filling the gap.

The book is built on the thesis that each school must develop an organized plan of guidance services based on principles of sound administrative procedures. The organization of the materials in the volume, along with the detailed treatment of these materials, will render a valuable service to school administrators who are trying to secure an effective guidance program. The thorough discussion of principles underlying the guidance program enables both the administrator and the teacher to gain the insights necessary for making the program effective once it is established.

The book is divided into nine chapters, beginning with a discussion of the principles or foundation of the program and continuing through the stage of evaluation of the program. The intervening chapters include discussions on the personnel necessary for setting up the program, the selection and training of the personnel, the basic elements of the guidance program, organizing the program, and activating the program.

In discussing the pattern of organization, the authors have suggested principles that can be used as guides, and one schematic arrangement is presented in illustrating these principles. However, appropriate emphasis is placed on the idea that the pattern for any particular school must be worked out by members of the local staff, after ample faculty discussion and agreement.

The responsibilities of administrators, counselors, teachers, and other staff members are thoroughly discussed in the section pertaining to personnel in the program. In each case, the analysis shows the allocation of responsibility, the reasons for each of these activities, and some of the ways in which these activities can be successfully administered.

Two chapters of the volume suggest a framework of basic elements around which the guidance program should be centered. A list of the various tools and techniques necessary to carrying out the guidance activities is included. This list covers the range of implements needed by teachers and counselors in achieving the three major purposes of the program, namely, (1) to secure information about pupils; (2) to gather the information needed by pupils about occupational, educational, and other opportunities; and (3) to acquaint pupils with their own individual assets and limitations and to provide them with the wide range of information that they will need in making necessary choices and plans.

One chapter is devoted to a discussion of the selection and in-service training of staff members. The basic principles underlying in-service training are presented, along with specific suggestions for making the program effective. The section on staff training also includes a bibliography of resource materials that should be supplied to teachers as a service function of the guidance program. To the reviewer, the essence of this section is to be found in the emphasis on the necessity for every staff member's having a reasonable understanding and appreciation of the practices, procedures, functions, and objectives of the guidance program.

A section on activating the program is also included as a part of the book. This section presents detailed suggestions for initiating the program through the use of faculty committees. Specific suggestions are included regarding the organization of committees, membership, methods of reporting, and other details.

The section on evaluation suggests the techniques and procedures to be used in determining the effectiveness of the program. A list of possible evaluative studies and an exhaustive check list covering the various areas of the program to be appraised are included in this section. It is emphasized, however, that the evaluation techniques will vary from school to school according to the objectives and services of the guidance program in any certain school.

The Appendix presents a series of personnel forms which may be utilized in the guidance program. Course outlines for on-the-job, in-service training of counselors, teachers, and administrators are also included in the Appendix.

The volume as a whole represents a thorough and detailed treatment of an area in guidance that heretofore has been much neglected. It will prove to be of inestimable value to administrators who are attempting to place their guidance services on a sound and effective basis.

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ALEXANDER J. STODDARD, MATILDA BAILEY,
and ROSAMOND MCPHERSON, *Junior
English Three*. New York: American
Book Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+530. \$1.96.

No one will dispute the difficulty of emphasizing all the skills and knowledge with which a high-school pupil should be concerned in the field of English. The teacher who dwells on the pupil's normal "present-day-living" interests runs the danger of neglecting those fundamentals of grammar which are needed for the future. *Junior English Three*, the third of a series of books recently off the press, the first two of which are for Grades VII and VIII, offers possibilities of avoiding this dilemma by the arrangement of its material. The book is practically written; for it both appeals to the pupil's everyday interests and helps him to attain

the competence by which his ultimate work is judged. In addition, four significant characteristics mark this volume as a serviceable textbook. These characteristics are: (1) inclusiveness, (2) thoroughness, (3) arrangement, and (4) style. This assertion may seem a rather large order to be filled by one book, but perhaps examples will bear out this enumeration or, at least, lead to a more thorough examination of the volume.

Inclusiveness.—The book is divided into two main parts: composition and grammar. Preceding the first part is a chapter entitled "Taking Inventory," which contains twenty tests to be used as a means of acquainting the teacher with the attainments of the pupils at the beginning of the course and to enable him to plan the semester's work intelligently. Eleven chapters on composition are interwoven with the same number on grammar.

The first part of the book, in which grammatical terminology is reduced to a minimum, includes both certain traditional material and materials devoted to the school paper, the library, the writing of poetry, and leisure-time activities. Given within these eleven chapters are activities in which the normal child participates outside of, as well as within, the school. For example, the chapters contain material on proper manners for specific occasions, parliamentary procedures, and oral communication. Additional appeals to the pupils' outside interests are included in the chapter "Leisure Time," which covers subjects such as books, movies, radio, magazines, and a section entitled "Other Things You Would Like To Do."

The second part of the book is devoted to the technical aspects of grammar and includes a pretest at the beginning of each chapter, as well as practice exercises and reviews at each chapter's end. Particular attention should be paid to: chapter xxi, "A Spotlight on Sentences," which is a summary on work with sentences that may be expected to leave a lasting impression on the pupil; chapter xxii, "The Workshop," which includes eighty-five tests that, at any par-

ticular time, should enable the teacher to know the extent to which his pupils have progressed; and the concluding chapter, "The Handbook," which contains definitions and illustrations of grammatical rules.

Thoroughness.—Three illustrations will indicate how the authors have provided the means for judging the attainment of pupils.

(1) A number of tests, through which the pupil's attainment may be measured, both at the beginning and at the end of the semester, are given. (2) In several chapters detailed attention is paid to the diagramming of sentences. (3) Opportunity for review is offered, as illustrated by chapter xxi in which, after having written sentences throughout the study of the textbook, the pupil has the occasion to assemble all that he has supposedly learned in order to get an overview of his attainment.

Arrangement.—There are several significant innovations in the arrangement of the book. (1) Each chapter in composition is keyed to a corresponding chapter in grammar. (2) The rules of grammar are discussed in the chapters in which the pupil finds them necessary and are later assembled in one chapter. (3) For emphasis, the definitions are inclosed in boxes. (4) Reference to good reading material is made throughout the book, as occasion arises. (5) Tests are offered not only at the beginning of each chapter of grammar but at the beginning and at the end of the book. (6) The Index, comprising twelve pages, is arranged in an eye-catching manner.

Style.—The authors' style of expression should appeal to the reader. This style is exemplified both by the chapter titles and by the subdivisions. Examples of chapter titles are: "Socially Speaking," "All the News," "Polished Paragraphs," "Seek and Find," and "Now I'll Tell One." Furthermore, each chapter, particularly in the first part of the book, begins with an attention-getting phrase and is written throughout in an interesting manner. The illustrations, such as the one of the group talking before a micro-

phone, are of kinds which should arouse pupil interest.

To the teacher of English who is concerned not so much with the number of pages covered as with the ability of the child to express himself well, both orally and in writ-

ing, on the playground and in the school, this textbook offers great possibilities.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

Co-operation in General Education. A Final Report of the Executive Committee of the Co-operative Study in General Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xviii+240. \$3.00.

CUNNINGHAM, K. S., and MOREY, ELWYN A. *Children Need Teachers: A Study of the Supply and Recruitment of Teachers in Australia and Overseas.* Australian Council for Educational Research, Research Series No. 62. Carlton, N. 3, Victoria, Australia: Melbourne University Press, 1947. Pp. viii+186.

DUNKEL, HAROLD BAKER. *General Education in the Humanities.* The Co-operative Study in General Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1947. Pp. xx+322. \$3.50.

WYNNE, JOHN P. *Philosophies of Education from the Standpoint of the Philosophy of Experimentalism.* New York 11: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1947. Pp. xiv+428.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BEATTIE, JOHN W.; WOLVERTON, JOSEPHINE; WILSON, GRACE V.; and HINGA, HOWARD. *Guide and Accompaniments to "The American Singer, Book V."* New York 16: American Book Co., 1947. Pp. 140.

BLAICH, THEODORE P., and BAUMGARTNER, JOSEPH C. *The Challenge of Democracy.* New York 16: Harper & Bros., 1947 (revised). Pp. xiv+740. \$3.20.

CASTEÑEDA, C. E., DELANEY, ELEANOR C., CUTRIGHT, PRUDENCE, and CHARTERS, W. W. *The Lands of Middle America.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+384. \$2.00.

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GROSE-HODGE, HUMFREY. *Roman Panorama: A Background for Today.* Cambridge, England: At the University Press, 1944. (New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1947). Pp. xiv+260. \$2.88.

HUGO, VICTOR. *Les Misérables.* Adapted by ALICE CECILIA COOPER and AGNES AUGUSTA FRISIUS. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1947. Pp. viii+418. \$1.20.

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KEFAUVER, ESTES, and LEVIN, JACK. *A Twentieth-Century Congress.* New York 16: Duell, Sloan, & Pearce, 1947. Pp. xiv+236. \$3.00.

LANE, FREDERIC C., GOLDMAN, ERIC F., and HUNT, ERLING M. *The World's History*. New York 17: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1947. Pp. xii+782. \$3.20.

LEVIN, FRANK KERN. *How To Read for Self-improvement*, pp. xii+246; *Study Guide and Workbook for "How To Read for Self-improvement"* prepared by W. TANAKA, pp. vi+114. Chicago 37: American Technical Society, 1947.

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NORVELL, GEORGE W., and HOVIOUS, CAROL. *Conquest: Book II*, pp. xii+596; *Book III*, pp. x+598. Boston 16: D. C. Heath & Co., 1947. \$2.00 each.

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SCOTT, SIR WALTER. *Quentin Durward*. Adapted by HENRY I. CHRIST and JEROME CARLIN. New York 10: Globe Book Co., 1947. Pp. viii+318. \$1.17.

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- A Report of the Second Annual Conference on Reading, University of Pittsburgh, July 8-19, 1946.* Compiled and edited by GERALD A. YOAKAM. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: University of Pittsburgh. Pp. 164.
- The Role of the Public Junior College in Illinois: Key Facts and Basic Considerations.* Prepared by the Junior-College Committee of the Curriculum Committee of the Illinois Secondary School Principals' Association. Educational Research Circular No. 58. University of Illinois Bulletin, Vol. XLIV, No. 43. Urbana, Illinois: Bureau of Educational Research, College of Education, University of Illinois, 1947. Pp. 44.
- Safety Education in the Elementary and Junior High School Grades.* Curriculum Bulletin, 1946-1947, No. 4. Brooklyn 2: Board of Education of the City of New York, 1947. Pp. vi+86.
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